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MILITARY AND NAVAL MANEUVERS.

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GENERAL OUTLINE.

**A**UTUMN MANEUVERS are generally recognized in the scheme of military instruction of European armies. The practice in the drill-room and on the parade-ground here find their expression and their application. With us these Maneuvers are still in their infancy and while we should feel with regret our backwardness in this and other elements of warlike preparation, we should not fail to avail ourselves of the wide field that is still open, and of the many facilities for carrying on these exercises after our own fashion, profiting by the experience of Europe so far as it may apply.

Maneuvers are useful in affording to officers, soldiers and sailors an opportunity to acquire practice in their profession without the great sacrifice of life and property incidental to hostile warfare. They should therefore be made to conform as nearly to the conditions of the latter as to require a similar ex-

ercise of the faculties, and to render the forms of warfare to some extent familiar to those who have to apply them. The problem thus commends itself to the American ingenuity; and Practice Maneuvers promise to make rapid strides throughout the Army, Navy and Militia as soon as the necessity is thoroughly realized.

For a clear conception of the subject it will be considered in its broadest sense so as to include all exercises necessary in time of peace to afford practice in the Art of War. The most perfect representation of a hostile encounter was once afforded by a distinguished soldier who thought he could save the lives of thousands of his men by occasionally sacrificing a few hundred in the way of instruction. Who would not feel more respect for this spirit than for the more conservative one which led thousands upon thousands of brave men to be mowed down like sheep because they vainly assumed that the methods they had learned by experience and hard practice would suffice to meet the requirements of modern warfare without taking into consideration the important changes in the armament?

But humanity revolts against these realistic experiments and has suggested methods that approximate as nearly to hostility as consistent with a proper regard for human life and a measurable economy of resources; and it is by no means to be assumed that these methods are less instructive than the former. If the maneuvers are properly combined with other exercises and investigations a system of instruction results that will prove even more useful than that afforded by unnecessary bloodshed, for it fixes the attention firmly upon each point in succession just as a skillful General throws all the strength of his armies upon the several fractions of his enemy and overcomes them in detail, and just as every conscientious and earnest man in other trades and professions devotes all his energies successively to mastering the difficulties of his calling.

To determine how far practice in the Art of War can be taught in time of peace and without violating what is called in the Text-Books the "Peace Conditions" let us first consider the form of Maneuvers that differs the least from hostile encounters, and treat all other methods with reference to this.

#### LAND MANEUVERS IN EUROPE.

In general terms, in the Autumn Maneuvers in Germany

a condition of hostility is assumed, the forces available are divided between the opposite sides in accordance with the problem, and the exercise proceeds as if in earnest with slight modifications to avoid unnecessary destruction of property, until the combatants come within reach of each other's weapons. The umpires then decide the effects and consequences of the firing each in his own sphere, in accordance with recognized rules and principles, based upon the experience of past warfare which has been systematized and digested for the purpose. The defeated troops then fall back as directed by the umpires and the operations proceed until the problem has been solved or until the time fixed for the maneuvers has expired.

The following are some of the features in which this exercise differs from war :

1. The firing is not conducted with ball cartridges.
2. The troops do not fall back from fear of death.
3. They do not collide.
4. The action is sometimes suspended to enable the umpires to decide the result.
5. The farmers' crops are sometimes avoided, where in war they would be trodden down.
6. The ground sometimes shelters troops from sight, where they would be exposed in war.

The method of deciding the effect of fire under all conditions is identical with that employed in *Kriegsspiel* and constant practice in this exercise and applications of its principles beginning with operations on a small scale on the map and in the field affords to the umpires excellent preparation for their duties in the Maneuvers.

In making their decisions, account is taken of all the modifying factors dependent upon the nature and circumstances of the troops delivering the fire and those subjected to it.

It is probable in European Maneuvers, these factors are not computed as in the Minor *Kriegsspiel* and, in the American practice but estimated as in the freer form of this exercise. But it should be remembered that by whatever method the *Kriegsspiel* calculations of the effect of fire are made, they are based upon the results of the experience of war so modified as to take account of improvements in the mechanism and use of weapons, and it must not for a moment be inferred that they depend upon the results of a target practice alone.

Thus Military History and the Statistics form the basis of Kriegsspiel as the latter forms the basis of the umpire's decisions in the Maneuvers of Opposing Parties.

The highest order of Maneuvers cannot be considered independently of Kriegsspiel, nor can the latter attain its highest usefulness unless supplemented by maneuvers; nor can either be developed without a proper study of Military History and Science.

The modifications 4, 5, 6, introduced mainly with a view to economy and like considerations, are far from detracting seriously from the value of Maneuvers for military instruction.

On the field of battle the combatants are urged on in the heat of excitement to the attainment of certain ends, and are only too apt to be biased by their immediate surroundings but in the Maneuvers the modifications and pauses serve to fix the attention of officers and men to remoter influences.

It is understood that the Maneuvers of the other Continental Nations are similar in character to those of Germany.

The following are some of the most important rules adopted in Germany for the conduct of their Autumn Maneuvers: they are translated from the official manual entitled "Felddienst-Ordnung, Berlin, 1887, pp. 166 etc.

#### " MANEUVERS OF TWO OPPOSING PARTIES.

##### " PRELIMINARY DISPOSITIONS.

" In these maneuvers one party wears a white cover over the helmet to distinguish it from the other.

"26. The Director who commands the maneuvers prepares one general idea, explaining the general situation or state of warfare, which would in reality be known to both parties, and a distinct special idea for each party, explaining the situation of this party.

" The leader may either so state the Special Idea that the Commander of the party has to frame his own orders, or he may give him definite instructions at the end of the Special Idea.

" In a small affair, such, for example, as would be conducted in the vicinity of a garrison, it is not necessary to adhere to the distinction between the General and Special Idea, but in place of both he may give orders embracing all that may be required to characterize the situation.

" Militray Problems that depend on complicated and remote suppositions are not generally so useful as those assuming sim-

pler conditions which can be more readily and clearly comprehended. Even the simplest conditions may give rise to a variety of solutions.

" 27. The situation should be such that at first the opposing parties are so far separated as to give room for the preparatory evolutions since this portion of the exercise has generally the greatest influence on the issue, and is often especially instructive to the commanders. The orders for the first day should, however, make it probable that at least a part of the forces are to be deployed.

" 28. For a thorough comprehension it is recommended that the same General Idea be maintained throughout the period of Maneuvers to which it applies, so that it may form a basis for a consistent plan of operations.

" Whenever it becomes necessary to make a change in the plan, or to transfer the action to other ground, the Director may usually accomplish this result by furnishing motives to the troop commanders for changing their plan either by announcing the decision of an engagement, or imparting news about the enemy's movements or circumstances that transpire elsewhere, or by weakening or strengthening one side or the other, or, finally, by delivering instructions from one who is assumed to occupy a higher position.

" Thus, without interfering injudiciously in the operations or the 'Peace Conditions,' the Director has always at hand a ready means of giving the Maneuvers any desirable direction or limitation in extent that may be required either by the topography, or by the provisions for lodging and feeding the troops.

" 29. To effect a change in the strength of the parties, and, when desirable, to prevent each party in the beginning from knowing the strength of the enemy, 'Indicated Troops' may be used with suitable restrictions. These should never appear suddenly and unexpectedly to friend and foe in a manner that would be impossible in reality, but they must be disclosed to the enemy at the proper time and their presence must be known to their own troops from the special idea. In the maneuvers of two parties, 'Indicated Troops' are only to be employed in the place of reserves.

#### " EXECUTION OF THE MANEUVERS.

" 30. The Commanders of both sides proceed independently and freely according to the situation assumed. They make their

disposition in the same manner that they would in serious warfare. To make it practicable to direct the whole Maneuver and, at the same time, to shelter and supply the troops as required by 'Peace Conditions,' it is essential that the commanders should hand in the orders for their operations to the Director before the exercise begins, and take note of any modifications due to 'Peace Conditions.' These must be noted under the test of the commands. They must also specify in a note where the main body of their troops spend the night.

"If to satisfy 'Peace Conditions' they do not occupy the same places of shelter in Maneuvers as in war, then it must be specified where they would be sheltered in serious warfare.

"31. The disposition of the baggage-trains and ammunition columns, if somewhat detached, should also be specified in the commands. The camp equipage and 'peace baggage,' on the other hand, are to be considered as appertaining to the maneuvers, and therefore need not be mentioned in these orders.

"32. The result of a combat depends, in war, upon circumstances which are but partially, or not at all, realized in peace Maneuvers.

"This is especially true of the effect of weapons and eminently of firing at long range. In the maneuvers this cannot be known and often cannot be properly estimated, and therefore it is especially important to guard against the disposition to overlook its consequences.

"In the first place it is the duty of the troop commanders themselves to take account of the effect of the enemy's fire, as in serious warfare. However, it must always be borne in mind that opinions about it differ, and that the condition of the enemy, which naturally is always varying, does not admit of an exact estimate.

"As it is impossible in extensive exercises for the Director to be always on the ground, it is essential that he should be furnished with the requisite number of umpires.

"The same tactical principles in connection with the unavoidable 'Peace Conditions' which serve as a basis for the umpire's decision should also regulate the conduct of the troops.

"In complicated situations and when the troops are much disordered, it is recommended that umpires should stop the progress of the Maneuvers from time to time to decide the combat, and then separate the troops and restore order.

"In addition to his own commands, the Director avails himself of signals fixed by himself, which, on the field of maneuvers, ought only to be given by him or by the Inspecting Officer, and which are repeated by all buglers and trumpeters.

"At the signal '*All*,' all of the troops halt and await for the signal to go on.

"At the signal '*Halt*,' which now follows, the commanders of both sides go to the Director. The infantry stack arms, the cavalry and artillery dismount. All are allowed to lie down and rest.

"Then follows the '*Commanders call*.' All mounted officers, and those unmounted officers who are near the Director, go to him. But in the Corps Maneuvers and in the Maneuvers of one Army Corps against another, only the commanders, including battalion and detachment commanders, with their adjutants, the leaders of independent companies, etc., as well as the rest of the officers who happen to be near the Director.

"The troops may also fetch water and water the horses, provided it is practicable within about three-quarters of an hour.

"At the signal '*Adjutants call*,' the adjutants also join the Director.

"At the signal '*All—March*,' the Maneuvers go on. The signal is given when it is probable that all commanders who were assembled around the Director have reached their troops.

"The signal '*Recall*,' denotes the end of the pause, whereupon the troops without further command go to their quarters, or to the place specially indicated for them, even if their commanders have not returned.

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#### UMPIRES.

"54. The energy of the Umpires should, as far as possible, provide for those influences that would make themselves felt in actual warfare.

"Their decisions have the force of commands from the Director which all are required to obey, even those higher in rank.

"In the Maneuvers the Director acts at the same time as Chief Umpire.

"The Umpires ought only to take account of the actual state of the fight and not of that intended. The same circumstances which in reality decide victory or defeat must also in peace form the ground for their decisions.

"The Chief Umpire alone is authorized to interfere in any other manner, in order that, as Director, he may keep the course of the maneuvers in hand.

"55. The Umpires are authorized to ask the necessary information from the troop commanders, and obliged to watch over the execution of their decisions.

"The Umpires must inform the Director of important decisions; but it is incumbent upon the Troop Commanders to report the news to their own Umpires, and to notify the neighboring detachments.

"56. The number of Umpires must not be too small in order to avoid unnecessary delay in the exercise while waiting for the decision.

"The Umpires are appointed by the Director from the available officers of high rank. Officers of lower rank are assigned to them according to requirements.

"The adjutants, however, remain with their troops.

"In the Imperial Maneuvers umpires are designated for the highest positions, and General Staff officers assigned to them through the Chief of General Staff of the Army.

"In Maneuvers against an 'Indicated Enemy' Umpires can also be employed. The Umpires and officers assigned to them tie a white band around the left arm.

"57. Before the exercise begins the Umpires are informed of the situation of the war and of the orders of both parties.

"The Director shows them their fields of operations.

"In general they are assigned to wings or detachments under some circumstances, as for advance guards, detachments, etc., many umpires are allotted.

"Thus when independent Cavalry comes up it is recommended that special umpires be assigned it.

"Furthermore this disposition does not prevent each umpire from deciding in other places, provided the umpires designated therefor are not present.

"Umpires should always be allotted to advanced posts and to all nocturnal undertakings.

"58. The Umpire should endeavor from the circumstances known to him, to foresee the developments so as to be in the right place at the right time. He must personally and through his officers keep the run of the measures of both parties, and

from an aptly chosen point of observation try to maintain a general supervision.

"Whenever necessary he informs the commanders on both sides of his observations of the effect of fire, in order that it may be constantly considered, and that the subordinate commanders may be encouraged to conduct themselves accordingly, and all unwarlike proceedings avoided, such as the exposure of an unprotected column to an effective fire, an unsheltered flank march, etc.

"Wherever, in actual War, the result depends upon the effect of fire-arms, in the Maneuvers the Umpire announces the decision. Only the Umpires and not their assistants are authorized to make such announcements and decisions.

"If many umpires come together, the senior in rank makes the decision. A decision once made should not be changed by any one but the Director.

"59. Decisions are made to the effect that a body of troops should not advance farther, that they must go back and whither, and for what time they are *hors de combat*.

"Decisions for the artillery show whether and for how long they are unable to move.

"The troops noted as *hors de combat* must retire from the reach of their adversaries, and during the specified time must not be used for any purpose, and for some time afterwards only as reserves.

"In order not to interfere with their training, troops should, only in very exceptional cases, be designated as *hors de combat* for the whole day.

"If an attack is carried through to a decision, the umpire indicates which party has won, and fixes for it a definite time which will be required for rallying, before it betakes itself to the pursuit.

"Thus when the troops are scattered after entering villages, etc., the fight is interrupted for a short time in order to allow each party time to assemble, according to the decision of the umpire.

"60. Defensive preparation of the ground, such as shelter-trenches and cover for batteries whose construction is not forbidden by 'peace conditions,' only come into play so far as they are actually completed.

"To judge of the value of shelter-trenches, it is necessary to learn whether a suitable field of fire is actually at hand.

"It is only admissible to indicate such works when they cannot be executed on account of 'peace conditions,' such as the destruction of bridges, barricading of streets, preparations of walls, or when fields should not be trodden down or should be avoided on account of high damages. If such works are indicated, then the troops concerned thereon refer to the nearest umpire who decides as to the assumed execution and is responsible for notifying the enemy.

"61. The effect of the fire of infantry will be influenced by various circumstances, as, for example, the distance of the enemy as well as the correct estimation thereof, fitness of the target, intensity and duration of the fire, fire discipline, surprise or disturbance of the troops by hostile fire.

"In the face of a strong, calm and well directed fire at distance of 600-800 meters, detachments in close order when unsheltered cannot pass or move laterally unless the fire of their own skirmishers is somewhat superior to that of the enemy.

"In the fire-swept zone within 600 meters unsheltered infantry detachments in close order can only advance or retreat, but can not move across the line of fire, even if behind a strong firing line, nor can they stay within this distance without special permission from the umpire.

"An unprotected firing line within 300 meters, will, in a short time, require a decision specifying that either the bayonet attack must be made, or one side or the other must fall back.

"Bodies of cavalry should not appear in front within 800 meters of infantry in good order, whether open or closed, unless in making an attack; other movements, or a halt without shelter within this distance, are to be considered to the disadvantage of the cavalry.

"Within 800 meters artillery under hostile infantry fire, can unlimber only when circumstances are especially favorable, but if it advances in company with infantry rushing forward to a decisive attack, then this should not be forbidden, but the loss which in reality would attend this movement must be well considered in the decision. At shorter distances uncovered artillery at a halt, loses its power of moving in a shorter time and within 200 to 300 meters it can no longer limber up. A still higher effect must be assigned to the flanking fire of infantry.

"62. To decide the consequences of a bayonet attack, first the preceding effect of fire is to be considered, then the proportion of strength is taken into account, the number of fresh forces that enter on each side, the manner of executing the attack, the circumstances of the enemy, and the ground. It is of further importance to consider whether the attack succeeds in striking a flank or a weak point.

"In consideration of the serious consequences of an infantry fight at close quarters, the decision must be made to correspond, since the fate of the day can only be decided through the successful or unsuccessful attack of large masses of infantry.

"63. The rapid course of a cavalry attack makes it difficult to weigh the circumstances which come into consideration, therefore the umpires must be on the ground as early as possible.

"To determine the consequences of an attack it is essential to know the proportion of strength, the condition of the enemy and the manner of making the attack.

"If hostile cavalry is attacked while deploying then the attack succeeds even though numerically weaker. Moreover a great superiority of strength will not be sufficient to decide the issue unless the forces are all brought up at the proper time.

An attack against cavalry depends more upon a heavy shock in close order than upon the rapidity and distance of the charge. The effect of an attack is much greater when the enemy is wholly or partially surrounded."

#### NAVAL MANEUVERS IN EUROPE.

Next in importance to the Grand Autumn Maneuvers of European Armies are the Naval and Combined Maneuvers which Great Britain has contributed largely to bring to the attention of the world and of which we sincerely believe the foundations have been securely laid in our own country.

From the imminent necessity of preparation for the defenses of our extended sea-coast, which is all but certain to become the theatre of our future wars, the combined maneuvers are far more needful and far more interesting to us than any other form, and incidentally they are more readily carried out for the reason that the ships can be utilized to transport the land forces to and from the field of operations without any material expense and without necessity of special legislation.

The English Naval Maneuvers may be divided into two

classes, viz. : The Strategic and Tactical Maneuvers, according to the nature of the problem and the manner of conducting the operations.

Both resemble the Autumn Maneuvers, above described, in the assignment of the General and Special ideas, but the effects and consequences of firing are decided in a more summary and arbitrary manner. For the Tactical Maneuvers this method leaves much to be desired, and the Naval Kriegsspiel must be further developed before these exercises can be as instructive as the Land Maneuvers. In estimating the effect and consequences of firing, the time and distance are indeed taken into consideration, but no account is taken of the numerous other factors that influence the delivery of the fire, nor of its varied consequences and results. In many instances it appears from the reports that the rules were so imperfect and discipline so lax, that no decision could be enforced. It would not be charitable to give too much credence to the report that the conditions of the problem were violated with childlike simplicity by officers of some rank in the British Navy; but it appears to be quite probable that many cases occurred in which the responsibility of the decision could not be so clearly fixed as to command universal assent. Nevertheless, these Maneuvers were very instructive, and the auxiliary exercises were well calculated to supply some of the links necessary to complete the course of military and naval instruction, and there is every reason to believe that in due time these maneuvers will become as perfect in their kind as the Land Maneuvers of the Continental nations.

The Strategic Naval Maneuvers have in their proper sphere proved to be valuable in calling attention to the necessity of preparation, as well as practicing the commanders in strategic problems, and affording much instruction to the crews.

The following extracts from the "Rules for the Guidance of the Umpires," etc., are taken from the publications of the Office of Naval Intelligence, Vols. V. and VII., and will serve in a measure to compare their methods with those governing the land maneuvers of the Continental armies.

"1886. MANEUVERS OF THE CHANNEL SQUADRON.

"To judge these Maneuvers an umpire was appointed for the ship and for each boat, and a referee decided questions in dispute. The following were the rules for putting boats out of action :

"Any torpedo-boat will be judged out of action when, under the fire of heavy guns, it receives 10 rounds at 2500 yards, or 2 rounds at 700 yards; or is under the fire of rapid-fire guns  $2\frac{1}{2}$  minutes at 1500 yards, or is  $1\frac{1}{2}$  minutes under Nordenfelt fire at 1000 yards, or small-arm fire at 450 yards.

"THE COMBINED MANEUVERS AT MILFORD HAVEN.

"Umpires are to consider themselves as such not only for their own posts, but for the whole field of operations as well.

"Each boat will, if possible, carry a sub-umpire, who shall have authority over his own boat, or any other in which there is no umpire.

"Any ship passing within the radius of destructive effect of a torpedo, or feeling the shock of explosion of a mine, will be considered *hors de combat*.

"Any gunboat, torpedo, or other boat, feeling the effect of explosion of a mine near it, will be ruled out of action. Such vessels or boats will at once retire from the mine-field to the rendezvous of disabled vessels by the most direct route.

"Gunboats, torpedo-boats, and ships' boats being under fire by day for a sufficient period, to be judged by the umpires according to circumstances, or if under artillery fire while within the beams of the search-light, will be ruled *hors de combat*.

"Torpedo-boats or other boats will be liable to be put out of action, under certain specified conditions, if engaged with an enemy's boats within a distance of 30 yards.

"Any boat succeeding in attaching an explosive charge to any part of the boom, shall be free from attack until the charge is exploded (or has missed fire), which (former) fact will be signalled by a rocket by night or by a red flag by day. In case of miss-fire the boat cannot replace the charge, nor can it take any further part in the operations.

"Boats put out of action in the preliminary operations may still take part in the main attack.

"MANEUVERS OFF THE COAST OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND IN THE SUMMER OF 1887.

"*Rules for the guidance of A and B squadrons:* 1. The enemy's squadrons (2nd divisions of A and B) are not to approach within 2 miles of the entrance of any port attacked.

"2. If they can remain within 8 miles of the entrance of any port for ten hours during daylight without the appearance of the opposing squadron, the enemy's squadron to be considered as

having attained their object, and to be free to attack another port.

"3. Should the opposing squadron sight the enemy's squadron before the expiration of the ten hours, the enemy is at once to endeavor to escape; the armor clad vessels of the opposing squadron are not to approach within 1 mile of the enemy's squadron.

"4. Should the squadrons sight one another at sea, and the opposing squadrons (1st divisions of A and B) can maintain a position for two hours within 3 miles of the enemy, this is to be considered as evidence of the ability of the opposing squadron to force an action, and the object of the enemy's squadron (which is of the nature of a surprise) is frustrated. The distance above mentioned of 3 miles is to be considered as measured between the nearest armor-clads of squadrons.

"5. Should an umpire on board the ship of the senior officer of the opposing squadron decide that the object of the enemy's squadron has been frustrated, both divisions are to rejoin by signal and cruise as one fleet until the expiration of the war.

"*Rules for the guidance of the C Squadron:* 1. The identity of a British vessel is, if possible, to be established by the name on the hull, but no vessel is to be stopped or boarded.

"2. A British vessel is to be considered as captured if the enemy's cruiser succeeds in keeping within 1 mile of her for half an hour, the cruiser subsequently stopping for one hour, this total time—one and a half hours—being intended to represent the necessary time for the examination of papers, etc.

"3. If a British cruiser of superior force arrives within 4000 yards of an enemy's cruiser, while effecting the capture of a merchant vessel, before the capture has been completed the enemy's cruiser is to sheer off and endeavor to escape.

"4. If a British cruiser of superior force can maintain a position within 1500 yards of enemy's cruiser for one and a half hours, the enemy's cruiser is to be considered captured.

"5. If a British force, numerically superior, can maintain a position with 1500 yards of an enemy's cruiser for one hour, the cruiser is to be considered captured.

"6. A cruiser is considered to be put out of action if she is approached within 500 yards by two or more torpedo-boats, by day or night, without such torpedo-boat having been discovered in sufficient time to enable her to have been under fire for at least three minutes.

"7. Cruisers captured or put out of action, as above, are at once to cease their commerce-destroying action and proceed to their rendezvous, Portland.

"8. No capture of a merchant vessel is to be effected within 2 miles of any fortified port.

"In the event of torpedo-boats attacking any of the vessels of A, B or C squadrons, any torpedo-boat which may have approached at night any vessel within a supposed distance of 500 yards is to fire a red light from 'Very's pistol', thereby indicating that she has attained a position from which her torpedoes could be discharged with effect. The officer in command of the vessel so attacked is to note the supposed position of torpedo-boats when this signal is made.

"Vessels attacked by torpedo-boats are not to use their heavy guns, but are to fire blank from quick-firing and machine-guns and rifles. Any torpedo-boat which is discovered in sufficient time to be under such fire for three minutes is to be considered as put out of action.

"Special private signals will be supplied to the commanding officers of the opposing squadrons to enable them to distinguish friends from enemies.

"Umpires will be appointed to the flag-ships, of the first divisions of A and B squadrons, and also to C squadron."

#### MILITARY AND NAVAL MANEUVERS IN AMERICA.

In the United States the several experiments in practice maneuvers by land and by sea have been somewhat disconnected and fragmentary. No doubt more has been done in the Army, Navy and Militia than is generally known or appreciated and it is hoped that this paper may suggest to others the propriety of publishing the results of their experience in this direction. For many years the writer has urged upon officers and editors the necessity for creating an interest in such exercises. In 1879 a plan was organized for conducting a series of maneuvers at Fort Clark, Texas, then the largest post in the country. The scheme was approved by General Ord, the Department Commander, and many of the officers at that post and at Department Headquarters, were engaged in making preparations for it, when the troops were required for active service on the frontier, and for this or other reasons, the post was so broken up that no men were available.

It is understood that maneuvers have been conducted from time to time by the regular troops and the militia and perhaps by both combined, and an account of the methods developed or of the obstacles encountered would doubtless prove quite valuable in preparing for the future.

The Naval force on the North Atlantic Station have for two or more years been organized into a Squadron of Evolutions, for the purpose of carrying on a systematic course of practical exercises in connection with the Naval War College at Newport, and too much credit cannot be given to Admiral Luce, and to the officers of his squadron for their indomitable energy in developing these exercises, under many disadvantages.

The tactics of the ram, the gun, the torpedo and the naval brigade, which had been discussed in the lectures of the War College, were each and all made the subject of these evolutions which took the form of experiment, of drills in Applied Tactics, and of maneuvers of opposing parties. In the summer of 1887, all the military and naval forces in Newport participated in the exercises in Applied Tactics and in Combined Maneuvers, involving the attack and defense of Narragansett Bay. This involved the co-operation of the North Atlantic Squadron, including the *Richmond*, *Atlanta*, *Ossipee*, *Galena* and *Dolphin* with their barges; the garrison of Fort Adams consisting of four heavy and one light battery of the 4th U. S. Artillery; the Training Station including a naval brigade formed from the crews of the *New Hampshire*, *Saratoga*, and *Portsmouth*, of the officers and assistants of the Naval Torpedo Station, and of the Engineer Department of the Army. An account of the operations on the 10th of November, in which all these organizations were represented, and which consisted of the passage by the squadron of a torpedo field protected by the guns of Fort Adams, and a landing, repulse and re-embarkation of the naval brigade, may be found in the General Information Series, of the Office of Naval Intelligence, No. VII, pp. 167-176.

In general terms all the exercises on land took the form of Practice in Applied Tactics, representing landings of the naval brigade, attack and defense of positions, practice in field engineering, etc., etc.

The successive positions to be occupied by the troops in representing the combats on each side were fixed beforehand, and signals made by the Director and repeated by the umpires at all

parts of the field to indicate the commencement or completion of each movement.

The passage of the torpedo field required no umpire to decide the result, for contact with a mine was indicated automatically by the explosion of a fuse on shore, which the umpire announced by a signal flag. The effect and consequences of the artillery fire from the ships and the Fort were decided by the Board of Umpires from the elaborate records which were kept at the time. The purely Naval Maneuvers were decided according to the methods that were based upon the rules adopted in England, France, Italy, etc. These rules however, were not followed blindly, but were discussed in all their aspects at the Naval War College, and each factor was made a subject of experiment as far as practical.

The connecting chain could not always be completed by the independent estimate of all the modifying factors, but the efforts were in the right direction and much is to be looked for in the future from the combined experience of the Naval War College, the Naval Maneuvers and the Office of Naval Intelligence, and it is sincerely to be hoped that institutions of a similar character may soon be established for the Army.

These combined maneuvers suggested the advantages to both the Army and the Navy, of utilizing the men-of-war as transports for detachments of troops that could thus be concentrated at suitable places for independent and combined maneuvers. The plan was accordingly suggested by the Admiral of the Squadron, and the War and Navy Departments, at once entered into arrangements for assembling, for the next season, a large force from the Division of the Atlantic, the Naval Forces of the North Atlantic Station, the Engineer Battalion, the Naval Torpedo Station, etc., etc., for practice maneuvers of several weeks' duration. The officers and men of the Army and Navy throughout the country were enthusiastic at the prospect of witnessing or participating in these combined maneuvers, and it is sincerely to be hoped that the day is not far distant when these anticipations are to be realized. Nor was the enthusiasm confined to the Regular Service, for the Militia of the neighboring States expressed their desire to be included, and the owners and crews of vessels look forward to this opportunity of practicing the duties of a Naval Reserve, and the large class of earnest men who sincerely desire to provide for the defense of the country may feel en-

couraged by the prospect these Maneuvers afford of gradually laying the foundation for an efficient volunteer reserve by land as well as by sea.

The following are some of the rules fixed by the Board of Umpires for the maneuvers of November 10, 1887.

1. Umpires are to consider themselves as such, not only for their own ports, but for the whole field of operations as well.

2. Each ship and boat will, if possible, carry a sub-umpire, who shall have authority over his own ship and boat or any other in which there is no umpire.

3. Any ship passing within the radius of destructive effect of a torpedo, will be considered as *hors du combat*.

4. Any torpedo-boat that shall arrive within ten yards of a ship shall be considered as having torpedoed her.

5 A torpedo or any other boat being under fire from two rounds of a heavy gun; for two minutes from a machine gun, or for one minute from two boats' guns, will be considered out of action.

6. Ships or boats ruled out of action, will indicate the same by hoisting a white flag, and continue in the foundation without again taking part in the action.

7. A signal number hoisted at the shore near the Fort will indicate that the vessel bearing the number shown is ruled out by being in contact with mine. (*Richmond*, No. 1, *Ossipee*, No. 2 *Dolphin*, No. 3, *Galena*, No. 4, *Atlanta*, No. 5.)

The forts shall be considered as passed when by the line joining the Goat Island and Rose Island lights.

9. Angles for position when by the three-point problem with the time of observation will be recorded as rapidly as possible on board the ships when passing the forts,—also the angle of elevation and time each gun is fired on either side for a study of the results. No gun will be fired more frequently than this consistent with the ordinary service of the gun in actual battle. Torpedo Station time will be used.

It is proposed in a subsequent paper to explain how far the methods herein described are applicable to Maneuvers in America and how it is believed that important improvements can be introduced, and to suggest a series of exercises to supplement these maneuvers and complete the chain of military instruction.

## COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN THE ARMY.\*

By BREVET MAJOR-GENERAL JAMES B. FRY,

UNITED STATES ARMY.

THE Adjutant General in his Annual Report, dated October 9, 1886, says: "An examination of the official reports made this year on the subject of Army Schools, further strengthens my opinion that the present voluntary school system in the Army is a failure, and from inherent radical defects will remain so. Those of the men who are the most ignorant and therefore in the greatest need of instruction, are the most averse to attend school. The attendance of this class of men should be made compulsory. There is no question that military schools, properly organized and efficiently taught, would prove of very great benefit to the rank and file of the Army, but among the necessary requirements for successful results, instruction must be made a military duty, and the hours of attendance should be dur-

*\*Extract from the Minutes of a Meeting of the Executive Council of the Military Service Institution of the U. S., held at Governor's Island, N. Y. H., December 4, 1886, Gen. T. L. Crittenden, V.-P., in the Chair: "It was on motion Resolved, that General James B. Fry, U. S. Army, be invited to read a paper on the subject of 'Compulsory Education in the Army,' before the Military Service Institution at Governor's Island, on such day in January next as may be convenient to him."*

MEMORANDUM.—This paper has been printed in "Monograph" form, but has not heretofore appeared in the JOURNAL. [PUB. COM.]

"ing the day. The course of studies should be carefully prepared, " and embrace such subjects of general and special nature as would " be of positive and practical advantage to soldiers. Teachers should " have recognized rank and position, and their selection carefully " made after an examination, which would develop not only the " knowledge they possess, but also their special capacity and apti- " tude for imparting it, a much rarer qualification than is generally " supposed."

In our fast age there is so much to be done that government aid, new processes, and short cuts find favor, for the time being at least. Every thing that appears to be an improvement upon old methods is apt to be seized and carried to extremes. The general feeling of the times finds expression in the army and when we mount our hobbies we are hard riders. For years past target shooting has held the field. That a thorough knowledge of the capacity and use of his weapon is of the highest importance to the soldier has never been disputed, but the popularity of the present bull s-eye target practice first appeared in the National Guard. So, too, the proposition to make the elementary education of enlisted men compulsory may have been derived from the public school system of the country. It is well to take a straight look at the system in civil life, and try to understand its advantages and disadvantages before introducing it into the military service.

My view of our public school system is from an impartial, though somewhat distant point. I look upon the general features and bearing of the system, judging it mainly by its fruits and not pretending to be familiar with its details. While my convictions are strong and earnest, I do not claim to be fully informed. I present the general subject as it appears to me, trusting that light will be thrown upon it by others, and the welfare of the country and the military service promoted.

In the most advanced nations, abroad, the Government controls the schools.\* Those nations understand the elaborate mechanism of surveillance, and their people are more or less accustomed to the coercion which Rulers may think it necessary to apply. That

\* "It is certain from Suetonius, that the Romans thought the education of their " children a business properly belonging to the parents themselves; and Plutarch, in " the life of Marcus Cato, tells us that as soon as his son was capable of learning, Cato " would suffer nobody to teach him but himself, though he had a servant named Chilo, " who was an excellent grammarian, and who taught a great many other youths. On " the contrary, the Greeks seemed more inclined to public schools and seminaries." (*The Spectator*, Letter ccxciii.)

compulsory education at public expense suits them, does not prove that it is best for us. Their people differ essentially from ours. Among us *the People* are the principal and the Government is the agent. With our legislators making laws that require a specified education of the people on the ground that it is necessary to a proper exercise of the elective franchise, we have the anomaly, to use a mild term, of the agent assuming to decide that the principal who appointed him had not education enough to make a proper selection. Thereupon the agent determines what kind of education and how much of it *the principal* ought to have, and then proceeds to make *his children* take it. If it is true that education is necessary to enable the voter to exercise the elective franchise properly, the first work should be upon men who are voting now. They should take the saving remedy at once, lest by their ignorance, that is assumed to be so dangerous, they destroy the government before the children upon whom alone we are working, get old enough to make it secure by their more intelligent suffrages. If this would be tyranny, or "bulldozing," does not the assumption upon which the State bases its arbitrary power concerning the education of children call for it? All of this might be done where the Government is the principal in fact, and the people are its agents, but is any of it suitable to us?

Washington said in his farewell address: "It is substantially true that virtue or morality is a necessary spring of popular government. \* \* \* Promote then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge." He was addressing his "friends and countrymen," not the government.

Some men deny that mere secular education improves the morals of the masses; but there is not much difference of opinion among our people as to the desirability of education; nor that among children there must be some compulsion to secure it. There is a wide difference, however, as to whether compulsion rests with the parents or with the State. The objection to compulsion by the State is not that its purpose to promote education is faulty, but that it involves a pernicious assumption of power, and that the State's expedients and processes necessarily call for official surveillance and intermeddling, which to be effective, must be arbitrary and vexatious, and which are hostile to our institutions and to the feeling of personal independence and self-reliance born and bred in our people. Nevertheless it is the logical result of our

public school system that government compulsion must be a part of it. It is maintained in some quarters that the State's interference is justifiable on the ground that education prevents pauperism and crime, making the citizen self-supporting and helpful to others; but the plea that education ensures a better exercise of the suffrage is with us the main, if not the sole, ground upon which one man can be taxed to educate another man's child. If that argument is sound, if the pupil's education is so necessary to the community that those who own property should be forced to give up some of it to provide education for the children of those who do not, then clearly it is the duty of the State to decide just the dose necessary for the general welfare, and to see that when prepared at public expense, it is taken by the patient; and this leads logically to State control of the whole school and school-book business. Indeed it leads to the conclusion that it is the duty of the State to compel all duly qualified men of education to vote; and governmental compulsion in this particular seems especially necessary from the fact that, in the present state of civilization, neglect of the elective franchise prevails among the educated men,—the uneducated doing by far the greater proportion of voting. This goes to prove that, with us at least, neglect in the exercise of the elective franchise is not due to lack of education by the voters, and is not likely to be remedied by the public school system. If it be assumed that education is a function of government, it must follow that the duty of deciding what education consists of and then enforcing it, instead of resting with the parent according to natural laws, must be performed by the State according to artificial laws. I am unable to convince myself that it is a function of our government to teach reading, writing, etc., to our children or our grown folks. Teaching, like preaching and doctoring, is a personal matter. The people's education, like their religion and therapeutics, should rest with themselves not with the State. The principle of individual development is the one that should govern. Indeed, it seems to me that to educate his children is both the duty and the right of the parent; and to have education furnished free of direct cost not only depreciates its value, but deprives men of one of the highest incentives to industry and work—the education of their own children. It is not to be admitted in our case that if the State did not intervene, parents could not or would not educate their children. The issue is a square one between the development of individualism and State paternalism.

Neither parents nor States can eliminate ignorance in a day. Time is necessary, and parents to whom the education of their children naturally belongs will make better use of it than States will. It is a sound, general proposition, that all enterprises belonging properly to the individual prove failures when assumed by the State. Education is not likely to be an exception to that rule. It is almost if not quite fatal to the individual system, that the State system having the force and prestige of law, seizes and holds the field, practically crowding out the systems which individual enterprise would otherwise build up and sustain. If the State should take charge of the health of the people, private physicians and private drug stores would at best have a precarious existence. The State demands the time of our boys and girls. Its routine must be accepted at the cost of losing that mental training, that development of the reasoning faculty, that discipline for the life the pupil is to lead, and that foundation of morality which constitute real education. Its avowed object is good, but it seems to me wrong in principle. It deprives parents of responsibility for their children, and does this at the expense of a part of the community, and however high its pretensions, it cannot be free from the demoralization that results from the giving of alms by law.

The public schools of the whole country now number more than a hundred and fifty thousand, with over three hundred thousand teachers, and cost from eighty to a hundred millions of dollars a year, and are still growing. Taking Vermont for illustration, it is said that the cost of public schools in that State has increased yearly, reaching in 1885 the sum of \$621,370, being more than half of the aggregate of all taxes, State, county, city, town and school district, which was only about \$1,750,000; and an accredited writer in giving this information adds: "With their ever-increasing cost, the schools are actually retrograding instead of advancing." The effect upon the industry of the community of such a tax for schools as that just mentioned, and the demoralization inseparable from the disbursement of such enormous sums of public money are grave matters, suggesting that men should strike an approximate balance between the good done by these schools to the character and qualifications of voters, and the evils involved in creating and supporting them. It can hardly be claimed that the selection of men for making and executing our laws and city ordinances proves that the public school system has accomplished much toward

improving our voters, or that it has done anything as yet toward purifying our elective franchise or increasing the proportion of educated voters. People were amazed some twenty years ago that Tweedism could grow up in New York City. But something worse than Tweedism has grown with the growth of public schools in this city and elsewhere. The public school system is not chargeable with these evils, but that system is maintained at enormous cost, upon the ground that it will, in whole or part, prevent them. If the evils grow with the schools, what is the use of the great public expenditures for the latter? Men's actions are governed by their feelings and their interests, and not by their education. As learning to read, etc., is not to be relied upon for the formation of character, it would seem to devolve on the public school system to show some process for that purpose, better than the individual process which it in part usurps. It is not only quite certain that the public schools by their multiplicity of officers and agents and large disbursements of public money are contributing, in some degree at least, to such general demoralization as prevails, but that they are failing to fulfill their promise as mere educational establishments. They are taxing the memory and stuffing the mind of the pupil with facts and forms, instead of reaching the higher purpose of ascertaining, developing and training the natural capacity. In other words, they are substituting for education a system of cramming. It happens that we have the means in the U. S. Military Academy of testing this point. That Institution is supplied with pupils by the appointment of one from every Congressional District and Territory, and ten by the President, without regard to residence. As the course is four years, there is a new pupil from every district and Territory every four years, and as much oftener as vacancies occur, by discharge, etc. There is no reason to doubt that the appointees have always been fair exponents of the system of teaching that has prevailed throughout the country. The examination for admission to the Military Academy shows that in late years cramming has to a great extent replaced sound teaching. The late Professor Church, one of the most competent and careful observers, reported in 1875, while at the head of the department charged with the examination of candidates in arithmetic: "From my experience in the examination of candidates for admission to the Military Academy I am satisfied that there is somewhere a serious defect in the system of instruction, or in its application,

"in the schools of our country, for education in the elementary branches, particularly in arithmetic, reading and spelling. I think our candidates are not so thoroughly prepared as they were twenty years ago."

Professor Kendrick, one of the oldest and most observant of the academic staff, said in 1880: "Judging from what we see here, the common branches—reading, spelling, grammar, arithmetic, geography—are not so thoroughly taught in the schools of the country as they were twenty-five years ago. The young men who come to us are not taught to observe and reason, so well as they were forty years ago. The schools of a large part of New England form no exception to this remark." Major-General Schofield said in 1880, being at the time Superintendent of the Military Academy; "I have understood it as the general opinion of the older officers here, that the candidates exhibit less thoroughness of elementary instruction than they did in early times."

As an indication of the drift of public schools toward the neglect of elementary branches, the following extract from the *New York Tribune* of Sept. 30, 1880, may be cited: "The Superintendent of the Albany public schools makes several recommendations to the Board of Education, some of which are summarized as follows: That oral spelling be practically abolished; that the course of arithmetic be reduced by a pruning of the text book." Indeed the evidences upon this point might be increased indefinitely. As an indication of what may have been substituted for oral spelling and arithmetic, I cite a letter which reached me recently from a young girl in the West in whom I am interested. She says: "I am still in school and very busy with my studies. I am taking rhetoric, physical geography, geometry, physiology, and have just finished zoology." She is one of a poor family.

It was reported not long ago that an old mother made up the coal fire and was sweeping the hearth one evening after the usual hard day's work, while her daughter sat discussing with some schoolmates the fashions, the *ologies* and *isms* of the time. They announced, with great satisfaction, that there was no such thing as resting in the grave until resurrection day, but that life is continuous and we pass at once from this beautiful world to one more beautiful still, and go right on with our occupations. The tired old mother leaned for a moment upon her broom and said: "Well, girls, I am sorry to hear that. I hoped when I reached the

"end of this life I should have a good long rest before I had to "begin another." There is food for reflection in the differences between such daughters and mothers.

The cramming and rote system of our public schools is directly opposed to the principles of sound education; and it does seem that instead of improving, morality as well as elementary education is falling off with the growth of that system. Whether or not there has been in late years a decrease in violent and brutal crimes, it is probable that there has been an increase in the variety of crime, and at the same time more skill in concealment—a steady increase in rascality and meanness, and a steady decrease in sound elementary education.\* Why, then, the question naturally arises, do free and progressive people preserve a system of education that seems to be unsound in principle, enormously expensive, arbitrary, vexatious and demoralizing in its processes, and disappointing in its results? Probably most people do not think much about it. There is so much to engage the attention of our men and women generally, that they do not at present study the probable consequences of surrendering to the public the education of children. Some hug the plausible excuse that they are obeying the law; and many are pleased with the fact that they are getting something they do not have to pay for; and there are some who are satisfied by the higher thought that they are befriending others, without worrying about the ultimate effect of their bounty. In most cases it is probable that the State's assumption not only quiets the consciences of parents, but relieves them from immediate trouble, promotes their comfort and pleasure and allays any apprehensions that may arise. Even those who think seriously about the subject are not likely to discover any means of escape from the toils of the system.

As an illustration of the state of affairs, I will give a case that came under my own observation: My father went to Illinois in 1819, the year after the State was admitted to the Union, and dwelt there until his death, in 1881, a period of sixty-two years. As early as 1836 he became the owner of a farm near Carrollton, the county seat of Greene County; and though long away, engaged actively in public affairs, the last years of his life were

\* In his "Civil Policy of America," Prof. J. W. Draper says: "For years to come "our public schools must be the seats of superficial learning; and we must accept it as "an unavoidable fact, with the sad consequences taught us by European statistics, "that that kind of instruction does not lead to the diminution, but rather to the increase "of immorality. We must pass through the temporary evil to reach the final good."

passed upon that farm. He paid by the quarter, according to the custom of the time, for the elementary education of his five children, and the children had all grown up and gone out into the world before the present public school system came into vogue in Illinois. To aid in the care of his farm, during the evening of his life, my father had in his household, two Norwegians, brothers-in-law. One of them had two children. They were excellent people. The farm was worked honestly and well; but year after year when the annual settlement was made, the result was—all having lived equally well—the only cash on the place was in the pockets of the Norwegians. What had become of the owner's share? It had gone in keeping up the farm, in feeding himself and the Norwegians, in wages to the latter, and in taxes. The valuation of the property in 1881, was \$11,371; aggregate of taxes on all accounts, \$164.87: *of that aggregate \$71.77 was school tax.* The proportion of school tax for preceding years was considerably larger. The man who paid all the taxes, including *the school tax*, had no children to send to school. He had long before worked for and paid for the elementary education of his own children. One of the Norwegians, without paying a cent of tax of any sort, sent his children to school *free*. My father was opposed to the public school system, but he often said, "What is the use of combating it? Suppose a vote could be taken in this establishment directly upon the question; I would vote one way and the two Norwegians the other. The result would be two to one in favor of the system. No doubt property owners generally, are in the same situation. We put ourselves in this fix, and the non-taxpayers, backed by the army of paid officers and employes of the system, are not likely to let us out of it."

To continue this illustration from my own State: In 1870 a brick school house costing *forty-five thousand dollars* was built in the school district which embraces Carrollton, the county seat. There was but one building in the town that cost over ten thousand dollars, and not another that cost one-half that sum. The Court House, erected in 1831, cost only \$7,500. It has long been too small and out of repair, but the people of the county have not yet been willing to tax themselves for a new one. This Temple of Justice was not long ago examined by order of the Court and Grand Jury and was pronounced unsafe, and for awhile Court was held in a rented hall, but now is back in the old Court House, the

people seeming willing, to use the language conveyed to me—"to take the chance of the old Court House falling down during "Court!" In this case it seems *literally* true, though I do not say it is true in the broader sense, that as the halls of so-called education went up in solid brick and mortar, the Halls of Justice crumbled down.

It must be admitted that in all these matters the will of the people is expressed. The law requires that the State be divided into school districts, and authorizes the school directors, in any school district, to build a school-house by issuing bonds payable, principal and interest, by taxing the property of that district. In this case, the population of the school district being about two thousand in 1870 and only about 2,500 now, bonds running fifteen years and drawing 10 per cent. interest per annum, were issued against the property of the district to build the big school-house.\* It is true that under the law a school-house cannot be built until it is authorized by a majority vote in the school district; but the majority obtained may be like the one I have mentioned in my father's establishment, where he was on one side and the two Norwegians on the other.† The effect upon property of adding to the current expenses of schools, the item of bonds bearing 10 per cent. interest, for a forty-five thousand dollar school-house may be deduced from the fact that a dwelling in that district valued, in 1885 at \$2,902.00, was taxed \$122.01, and of this aggregate of all taxes, \$62.83 more than 50 per cent. was *school tax*.

It is a noteworthy fact that the proposition for support and control of schools by the General Government has been opposed in some quarters upon the ground that it would be interfering with the States, and putting a premium upon their indifference and torpor. Does not support and control by the State produce a like pernicious indifference and torpor among individuals? Whether education is provided by the General Government or by State governments, making it compulsory and free of direct cost, depreciates its value, and gives it the character of an alms. The good things of life should be earned to be appreciated. Charity, when carried too far, or ill-judged in its object, defeats its own end, and promotes the evil it aims to relieve. Many think, and I am inclined to concur, that our public charities are becoming so ex-

\* Counting interest and principal, the school-house has cost the people of the district more than a hundred thousand dollars.

† The vote was 205 for, and 43 against, the measure.

tended, and so professional—so to speak—as to impair industry and self-reliance, by lifting off the pressure that helps to make men work. Say what we may about the purpose of the public school system to protect the community from pauperism and crime by forcing upon children an elementary education, the truth is that schools for general education at public expense are a species of compulsory charity. The fact that it is right for the General Government to confer upon a limited number of young men a special education, as government apprentices, to qualify them for the national defense, as at West Point and Annapolis, and to give professional instruction to its soldiers in schools of practice, affords no argument, in my judgment, in favor of governmental or State support and control of the elementary education of the whole people.

Looking at the subject by all the light I now possess, the support and control of the education of the people by the State seems to me to be a case of government paternalism, that is dangerous as a precedent, objectionable in its operations and unprofitable, if not positively injurious, in its results. I am strongly in favor of sound and thorough education; and my contention is not against education itself, but against our public school system.

If the foregoing views are well founded, we must ask: Can the defects of the system be removed, or should the system be abolished? The question which directly concerns us at present is: Should the compulsory system be introduced into the army and enforced among our enlisted men? Holding as I do, that general education is not a function of our government, and that all enterprises which properly belong to the individual must fail when assumed by the State, and that the public school system does not, and probably cannot, afford soundness and thoroughness in elementary education, the conclusion is inevitable that the system should be abolished. This invites the rejoinder appropriate in such cases, that it is easier to destroy than to create, and that one who would demolish an existing edifice should propose for construction something to replace it. The answer is, that the fundamental error in this matter seems to be in supposing that education, in our country at least, is a matter of construction. It belongs to individuals, not to government architects or engineers. It is a matter of growth not of construction. Clear the field of the hot-house plant that holds it, and the natural plant will make

its way with no other cultivation than it will receive from the voluntary care of those who know or will learn to know its value. Any hypothesis to the contrary of this, any assumption that governmental compulsion in education is necessary, means that parents will not find some way to educate their children, and that they need both aid and force to make them perform one of their first and highest duties toward their offspring. That may be true of some people, but I hardly think it is true of ours.

Here I leave the general subject of compulsory education and pass to the special subject of

#### THE COMPULSORY EDUCATION OF ENLISTED MEN IN OUR ARMY.

Prior to 1866 there was no provision in law or general regulations for the education of our enlisted men, nor was anything more in the way of education required as a condition of enlistment, than "a competent knowledge of the English language." It was in that way that the Army went through the war of 1812, the war with Mexico, all of our Indian wars, and the war of Rebellion. The Act of July 28, 1866, reorganizing the Army at the close of the last named contest, was the first to provide for educating enlisted men. Section 27, of that Act, authorized the appointment of a chaplain for each regiment of colored troops, and made his duty "include the instruction of the enlisted men in the common English branches of education; ' and Section 30, as reproduced in the Revised Statutes, adds: "Schools shall be established "at all posts, garrisons, and permanent camps at which troops are "stationed, in which the enlisted men may be instructed in the common English branches of education, and especially in the history "of the United States; and the Secretary of War may detail such "officers and enlisted men as may be necessary to carry out this provision. It shall be the duty of the post or garrison commander "to set apart a suitable room or building for school and religious "purposes." This is the legal foundation of the present system for the education of our enlisted men in the "common branches." It is a voluntary system. How it was, that the necessity among our enlisted men for education in the "common English branches," manifested itself to our law-makers for the first time, at the close of the four years' war in which the regular army bore an honorable and useful part, I am unable to say.

The first action taken by the War Department toward putting

the law in force, is shown in General Orders, No. 80, of September 24, 1866, authorizing the quartermaster's department, in case there was no suitable room at the post, to erect "such a building as may be necessary for chapel, reading and school room." This put the religious and secular education of the men under the same roof. The system seems to have dragged along until 1878, when a board composed of Quartermaster-General Meigs, Adjutant-General Townsend and Judge-Advocate General Dunn, made a report upon the subject, which was approved by Secretary of War McCrary, and published in General Orders, No. 24, of May 18, 1878. The board quoted the law and said: "To carry out any elaborate system of education under this statute would require considerable annual appropriations for teachers, books, and other appliances. To enforce compulsory attendance at schools would add new penalties for its infraction, which might engender discontent among men not inclined, from want of capacity or other cause, to attend school, and might increase or lead to desertion. Again, some men who would voluntarily embrace such opportunities of improving themselves as were offered, might resist any attempt to compel them. It is also to be borne in mind that the active movements of troops will often absolutely prevent any regular system of schools during the season for such movements. In view of these considerations the Board has concluded to recommend the use of the means already provided in the form of post-funds; a more liberal application of quartermaster's department appropriations to the erection of school rooms, and certain changes in the regulations now in existence, which govern those subjects, to give a wider discretion in the use of means now available; trusting that the officers of the army, on whom so much depends, will heartily enter into the spirit of the law, and apply themselves to an economical and judicious use of those means for the benefit of the enlisted men." The board then made many recommendations concerning details, and said: "While it is left optional with soldiers whether to attend school or not, yet they are advised to avail themselves of the opportunities afforded to improve themselves, and commanding officers will not only afford them all possible opportunities, but are charged to advise and encourage them to use them. \* \*

"The children of soldiers will be required to attend the post school for children, unless specially excused by the officer in charge of schools." It will be seen from this that while the Gen-

eral Government has failed to compel its enlisted men to be educated in the common branches, it, like State governments, has taken forcible possession of the education of children.

The foregoing is an outline of the system which the Adjutant-General of the Army says in his Annual Report, is "a failure, and "from inherent radical defects will remain so." "Those of the "men who are the most ignorant," he says, "and therefore in the "greatest need of instruction, are the most averse to attend "school."\* To remove the "inherent radical defects," the Adjutant-General says that "the attendance of this class of men" (the most ignorant) "should be made compulsory," and that "instruction must be made a military duty." This, of course, is a call upon the General Government for law to enforce elementary education upon such enlisted men as may be pronounced "ignorant." It is evident that some of the objections to compulsory education of children by the State do not apply to the compulsory education of enlisted soldiers by the General Government. On the other hand, there are objections in the latter case that do not apply in the former; but the inherent objection, it seems to me, is the same in both cases, to wit: governmental interference with a matter that does not belong either to the general or State governments.

In his Annual Report of this year, General Baird, Inspector-General of the Army, says: "Some officers have recommended "that attendance at school of enlisted men be made compulsory. "I am entirely opposed to anything of the kind. In the first "place, knowledge cannot be crammed into a man against his "will; and in the next, I doubt the legal right of the government "to compel mature men to attend school like children. If the enlisted men of the Army do not come up to a desired standard of "mental attainment, the remedy should be found in the recruiting "office, in the same way that the standard of physical fitness is "kept up."

It is proper, however, to add that there is much to be said on the other side of this question. I am told that in Germany the education of enlisted men is in part, at least compulsory, and that

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\* There is evidence here of the fruits of the public school system. That system has been in operation some forty years, and yet in enlisting the few recruits necessary to replenish from time to time, our little army of twenty-five thousand, we get so many grown men who are totally ignorant, that a law is sought to enforce elementary education among them by the general government, after they are enlisted for duty as soldiers.

it is compulsory, in some degree, in the British army. Among good authorities in our own Army is General T. M. Vincent, who, as early as 1881, recommended to the Adjutant-General "that the "instruction of enlisted men be viewed a military duty; the school "hours to be during the period of the day allotted to other military duties;" and who added in 1882: "I do not agree with the "Board (General Orders, No. 24, 1878) in the conclusion that "compulsory attendance \* \* would add new penalties for its "infraction." I do not perceive how compulsory attendance at school and the instruction of the enlisted men in elementary branches, if made a *military duty by law*, could be enforced without "penalties for infraction." Speaking literally, the penalties might not be "new," but they would be in addition to penalties provided for anything now known to the military code, as an offense. And if it be correct, as reported, by the Adjutant-General, that the present voluntary system is a failure, and "those who are "in the greatest need of instruction are the most averse to attend "school," it is almost certain that penalties for infraction of a law requiring compulsory attendance at school and making instruction in common branches a military duty, would have to be prescribed and enforced. In short, to make instruction in common branches a military duty, and the attendance at school compulsory, would require additions to our military code. It is not necessary for me to indulge in theories as to the nature of the required changes in the code or the difficulties that might arise in carrying them out.

The logic of "compulsion" seems to be about the same in military as in civil life. If it be right to provide schools for the common branches at public expense, it must follow that those for whom the expense is incurred and the trouble is taken, ought to be forced to receive the benefit. And so, too, does the conclusion seem to be the same in both civil and military life, that elementary education is an individual, not a governmental matter. The Government goes upon that principle in getting its commissioned officers, whether they be from the ranks, from civil life, or through the Military Academy. Before the applicant is admitted to the Service, either as lieutenant or cadet, he must prove by an examination that he is sufficiently educated in the elementary branches, to receive such professional training as the Government may deem necessary for the special service which it requires of him. Could not and should not the same principle be applied in receiving the enlisted man? The engagement between the Government and the

recruit is voluntary. If the Government forced men into its Army it might be under obligation to remove their elementary deficiencies; and I am told that that very thing is being done in Italy, to the advantage of the general population of the country. But we enlist and pay soldiers for the benefit of the Government, not for the purpose of using public means to confer an education upon ignorant men for their benefit. We take only men who want to join, and fix our own standard of admission. Would it not be better for us to exact the necessary elementary education as a condition of admission, than to take those who are not only ignorant, but too besotted in their ignorance—as appears from the Adjutant-General's Report—to avail themselves of the offer of a free education, and then spend the time, patience and money of the Government in trying to force education into them? If the military service does not offer sufficient advantages to induce enough men of elementary education to fill the ranks, it would be better and cheaper, I think, to add to the inducements by higher pay, etc., than to take the ignorant and go to the expense and trouble of educating them by force.

The only "compulsory" feature in the education of our enlisted men should be, as it seems to me, a prospective advantage. With cadets at the Military Academy, though subject to the Articles of War, the actual inducement to study is the prospective commission, and the power to dismiss, if the pupil does not attain the required proficiency. Years ago, Lieutenant Vogdes—now General Vogdes—expressed, upon the spur of the moment, and in a practical way, the real principle of compulsion. He was then assistant professor of mathematics, and in those days the pay of a lieutenant of infantry was \$64.50 a month. One of his pupils, having failed to master a problem, said impatiently: "Well, Mr. Vogdes, what is the use of such a problem as that any way?" "Mr. M.," replied Vogdes, "I don't care to discuss that point. I am here to teach cadets mathematics. That problem is in the prescribed course, and if you want to get a white stripe down the leg of your trousers, and be able to draw \$64.50 a month from the paymaster, you had better learn it."

## DISCUSSION.

### OPINIONS OF ENLISTED MEN ON THE SUBJECT OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES ARMY.\*

#### I.

I AM inclined to favor the system of "Compulsory Education," for reasons briefly enumerated:

*First* :—There can be no doubt that one of the greatest aims of the present age is the extension of civilization, which end cannot be obtained, unless education is made to be one of the principal channels leading to the consummation of this desire; and the fact that this improvement is for the public weal, is itself a good reason why the Government should use its power to forward the great work by making education compulsory in the Army.

*Secondly* :—To my mind, an educated man makes a better soldier than a man who is ignorant, as his higher condition of mind renders him more amenable to the strict discipline essentially necessary to the well-being of an army, and also causes him to seek a superior method of amusement, thereby tending greatly to the comfort of his fellow soldiers. As to whether an educated soldier actually fights better than one not enjoying that advantage, I am aware that there is a great deal of argument on both sides of the question, but it is my belief that by raising the moral standard of the soldier (the effect of education), he is more likely to faithfully perform his duties in the face of an enemy, being competent to realize the great responsibility taken upon himself by the oath subscribed to at the time of enlistment, and would, unless prompted by cowardice, feel conscientiously bound to use his utmost endeavor to secure success to his side.

*Thirdly* :—Education, as a stepping-stone to a greater degree of refinement than at present exists in the Army, would be an immense benefit to that branch of the Public Service; for, would it not do a great deal toward stamping out the crying evil of drunkenness which is generally at the bottom of the disgraces and crimes dealt with by the military courts? And, would it not also lead men to comprehend the demoralizing evil of the sin committed, by the use of those blasphemous and obscene expressions to be heard on all sides in the ranks? And

*Lastly* :—The knowledge of reading and writing is, in a manner, necessary to a soldier, for, from the time of his enlistment until he is discharged, he is continually called upon to sign his name to the various rolls, and if unable to read, is dependent on some one or other of his comrades for the information contained in the various orders issued for the guidance of the soldier; and, apart from the pity which one feels for an otherwise intelligent man who has to acknowledge his inability to sign his name or

\* In response to the invitation of the Publication Committee, through Post Commander.

read a simple order, it seems urgent to me that such a man shall be educated, if only that he may get the knowledge of his duty first hand instead of through the medium of a second person, such a course being open to error and misconstruction.

DAVID'S ISLAND, N. Y. H.  
December 22, 1886.

BENJAMIN LE HARTE,  
*Recruit Co. "C," of Inst'n G. S. R.*

## II.

THE education of the enlisted man being a very important matter, not only the men, but the Service at large would benefit, if orders more strict than those now in force were issued regarding attendance at Post Schools.

The good derived from these schools is very much noticed in the few who attend, and several men who have done so during my stay on the Island, have in a short time acquired a fair knowledge of reading and writing, and of the rudiments of arithmetic. However, these men were in themselves anxious to learn, and my experience has been that for every one man who is willing to educate himself, there are ten who are perfectly indifferent to the advantages of education.

My idea is, that attendance at all military schools should be compulsory, say three times a week, and that at the end of every three months, a Board be assembled to examine the men, and that to those who come up for examination, be, according to their merit, first, second or third class certificates awarded. The obtaining of a third class certificate to be considered sufficient for exempting the man from frequenting school.

On joining the depot or post, the recruit ought to be examined by the schoolmaster, or his assistants, as to his knowledge of elementary education, and if found satisfactory to be excused from attending school.

My reasons for thus advocating the compulsory education of the man are:

*First*.—The benefit he himself would derive from it, by enabling him to read books, or papers, and so increase his knowledge and naturally improve his intellect; not to speak of his higher, spiritual life, and the opportunity he would have to make himself acquainted with that unexcelled of books, "The Bible," should he be thus disposed.

*Secondly*.—The chance he would have to be by letter in constant communication with his family; and through them, as it were, perhaps under parental influence, which very likely might keep him from evil courses; thus making him a better man, and at the same time giving to the army a steady, order-abiding soldier. This very desirable and wholesome influence might be wholly lost, in case the man should have to depend upon others for penning his letters for him; as naturally he would not care to acquaint his neighbor with his inner self, or expose feelings, which he might pour into the ear of a mother, to an utter stranger.

*Thirdly*.—The advantage it would be to man and Service should every soldier be able to sign his name, and make himself acquainted with what he is signing for; thus avoiding on the part of the former ill feeling or remonstrances, should he afterward find out he had signed his name, or put his mark to too high a charge, and expediting the clerical work of the latter.

DAVID'S ISLAND, N. Y. H.  
Jan. 8, 1887.

CHARLES E. S. BARKER,  
*Serg't., Co. "D," of Inst'n G. S. R.*

III.

THE good results that would develop from compulsory education in the Army can hardly be overrated, and it stands as a fact, that the soldier now joining the Army, remains, as far as the cultivation of his intellectual faculties is concerned, a very much neglected being.

However little intelligence a man may possess, it should be utilized and brought to the best good for himself and those he serves. And there is no man living whose intellect is so small, as not to be cultivable.

The Government is morally responsible for every man in its service, and should therefore honorably discharge its duties toward each and every individual. It is by no means enough for a man to learn "how to walk post," "salute all officers according to rank," or from the top of an ash cart, learn how to manage an obstinate mule. Although these are things necessary to know, there are other things which are just as necessary to bring within any man's knowledge.

If every man after joining the Service (at the Recruiting Rendezvous, and nowhere else should recruits be received or held), was to be kept at the depot for one year, for the purpose of schooling and training, we should soon see the result. At the depot there should be established a school, in which every man should be taught a simple course in grammar, mathematics, history, geography, etc., etc. The school should be superintended by officers and have officers for instructors, with the assistance of such enlisted men as may be thereof capable. The time of attendance should be from four to six hours daily, this including the military and gymnastic exercises also. A recruit would then not be such a miserable looking soldier as he generally is now, although he may have been at the depot four months. Why, compulsory education would metamorphose the whole army! We would not have to know of non-commissioned officers who could not write their own names. That such things have happened we know, it is deplorable, but true. And we know of a man having served in the Army fifteen years, who could neither write nor read (*sic*). Such cases are inevitable in an army of conscripts, but inexcusable in an army of enlisted men, and especially if that army belongs to the United States.

It cannot be denied that, the more a man's mind is enlightened, the better he is able to comprehend his duties, and consequently more and better service is the result.

Therefore, compulsory education in the Army would be welcome as a long-needed reform, and as such, satisfactory to all parties. The present "post school" is a mere matter on paper, and perhaps in some cases, a simple detail for somebody to get fifty cents extra per day.

As before said, a well regulated school at every recruiting depot, with strictly enforced rules and regulations, would create wonders. And there is no doubt but that the moral standing of the army would increase manifold. The efficiency of the army could not be in a better manner promoted, and it is safe to say the effect would be greater than from a mere increase of pay.

Many matters bearing directly on this very interesting subject, could be brought under discussion, but, neither time nor room allow; therefore we shall conclude with a wish of seeing the day when compulsory education in the Army becomes a fact.

Respectfully submitted.

VICTOR N. E. NORMAN,

FORT WADSWORTH, N. Y. H.

Sergt., Batt. "B," 5th U. S. Artillery.

Jan. 4, 1887.

## IV.

THIS problem has been tried with varying success for a number of years, and to judge by the results arrived at, has seldom paid the outlay of time, labor and money. A stimulus in most instances has been wanting, and as the causes of its non-success are very deep seated, it will require a great deal of study, time, and patience to overcome the existing obstacles. At every step we meet the repugnance of the men to "going to school," and in order to remove this feeling, it is absolutely necessary, that some inducements be used. A very baneful influence on this question has also been the system of extra and daily duty. When we further come to consider the small number of men for duty, the greater number on extra and daily duty, the frequent changes in the personnel of a company and the elements therein, we cannot but feel discomfited at the total absence of a certain *esprit de corps*, which, with its enterprising, ever refreshing influence, is necessary to mar or make anything, especially a military body that is moving within a limited sphere.

To remove the above causes, which have proved a serious drawback before us, inducements would go a great way, interest would take the place of former apathy, and interest once aroused, would make a soldier understand what is required of him; would teach him that all this outlay of money, time and labor will make a man of him, and is not intended to lower him in his own estimation. That it is never too late to mend, and, consequently, is never too late to learn, should be impressed on the men on every favorable occasion. The proposition some time ago, to appoint "Post-school Teachers" is a very good one, and it is hoped will be realized.

As we have traced the different causes, which have retarded the best of intentions, we come to a point now, where we need encouragement, and a great deal thereof, considering the age at which the majority of men enlist.

Cases, where men study and try to advance themselves from their own impulse, are rare, very rare indeed, and as the greater number of men are not so hungry, at present, after knowledge, and balance in their minds, whether to forego some pet pleasure for the sake of mental improvement, against what they would probably call a loss physically, it is feared that the latter would outweigh the former, and so we must try to prepare this dish in a more palatable form.

The inducements I alluded to above, should consist in the following:

*First.* School to be held during the day, in all of the branches comprising a common school education, at such a time as would not interfere with the necessary military duties. The evenings to be reserved for the men for recreation and preparation for the next lesson.

*Second.* Prizes to be given to the best scholars, and their names to be published in orders.

*Third.* Lectures to be held on that respective branch of the Service the men belong to (in this instance, "Artillery"). I venture to assert that the majority of men would take a great interest in such a lecture, besides it would materially add to their self-respect to listen to a treatise delivered by an officer.

*Fourth.* A step in the right direction would also be the erection of a gymnasium, supplied with all appliances, at every post. This to serve for the men to pass their spare time in, especially evenings. This institution would benefit the soldier mentally and physically, and if such a thing could be allowed as the sale of coffee, tea, sandwiches, etc., at a nominal charge, it would prevent many a man from going astray.

Respectfully submitted,

MAX HOFFMAN,  
1st Sergt., Batt. "M," 5th Artillery.

V.

I HAVE the honor to submit the following as my opinions derived from experience and observation upon the subject of "Schools for Soldiers :"

I do not believe in the post schools for soldiers. We should not accept recruits who are so ignorant as to necessitate the institution of primary schools at military posts ; neither do I believe the amount of education that could be imparted under present system without interference with the duties of the soldier, of enough importance to justify the attempt where ignorant men are found. The soldier when called upon to do anything outside of his strict duty, looks for reward either present or prospective, and if he is not excused from duty as an inducement, to begin with, he is apt not to be very enthusiastic, and as he does not see a certainty of promotion to the grade of non-commissioned officer—and that grade is not at present filled exclusively by educated men—which would be expecting too much ; as other attainments beside an education, and some special gifts are demanded of non-commissioned officers, he concludes that to attend the post school as a labor of love, while billiards and whist are more congenial, is wasted energy. A soldier of ambition and persistence has a greater incentive, and better opportunity for self-education than a civilian.

Men possessed of sufficient education could be readily obtained were Congress induced to increase the pay of certain grades in the Army, and give the soldier a proper ration—every company commander knows that the ration is wretchedly deficient in quantity and variety, especially in this department, while it is cooked and served by men of no previous experience, in such a manner that the food of the soldier is inferior to that of the commonest corporation laborer. And by establishing recruiting rendezvous at other points than at our largest cities, especially sea-ports, the *genus* loafer could be very thoroughly eliminated.

Should the Service appear to demand "compulsory education," which I question, in my opinion to obtain best and satisfactory results, the men should be divided numerically, without regard to attainments, into classes ; the commanding officer should arrange for a thorough primary course, comprised in a term of a certain number of weeks, and assign so many classes to each term ; the classes attending should be excused from all other duties when possible, excepting drills and parades, duty devolving upon the remaining classes who would be excused in their turn ; the hours of attendance should be at least three, and the building used as a school should be sufficiently remote from the barracks to insure quiet ; the classes should be required to study as well as recite in the school room ; each class should be required to plod thoroughly through the course, and at the end of the term pass an examination, which would determine who could be excused further attendance on another term.

The question of teachers demands carefulest attention also. He should be a non-commissioned officer of character and ability to obtain best results ; as a private is not believed to command the amount of respect which rank and seclusion from familiar intercourse with privates inspire.

Respectfully submitted.

T. E. ROYSTON,

1st Sergt., Co. "A," Batt. of Engineers

WILLETS POINT, N. Y. H.  
Dec. 27, 1886.

## VI.

THE closing years of the XIX Century mark the rapid growth of an era of progressive individual education. Numerous text-books, magazines, even newspapers, valuable as incentives, if nothing more, invite the mechanic, the artisan and the soldier to perusal and study.

That the popularization of knowledge has given a vast impulse to technical pursuits, is shown in the rapid growth of industries dependent, in a great measure, on intelligent labor. So, too, the army, an integral and essential factor of our progressive age, is beckoned forward. The tactical disposition of massed forces, maneuvered to overwhelm by their weight and impetus, has given place to an open disposition which calls on each unit not only for a rigid obedience to orders, but the exercise of individual intelligence in the selection of position, the adjustment of the rifle, and a ready and alert observation, educated not only to note all that is passing within the zone of duty, but to decide promptly as to the value and report briefly any features which may be utilized to advantage.

In so brief an article the interdependence and logical sequence between general and technical education can only be noted.

The Report of General Howard, Sept. 17, 1886, states that "Post libraries and reading rooms are well patronized. But at least 2 per cent. of the enlisted men can receive no benefit from them, being unable to read or write," and further recommends that "an applicant before enlistment should be able to read and write English." This recommendation, lying at the very root of the matter, a common school education as an initial corner-stone upon which a technical military education may be erected, is a stand well taken, and so much should be demanded from all applicants. Let compulsion commence "*ab initio*" at the recruiting office.

The raw material given, formulate, then, a system of general and technical education adapted to the needs of each arm of the Service. *Compulsory*, because an important factor in fitting the soldier for an intelligent performance of his duty. *Progressive*, that the enlisted man, with a growing pride as the possibilities of his calling are unfolded, may ever have a goal before him. Fort Monroe and Willets Point already offer advanced classes to a few selected enlisted men of the artillery and engineers. The school at Leavenworth, might, in a similar manner, open its doors to the cavalry and infantry.

From the present system, which first appoints the non-commissioned officer and attempts to qualify him for his duties afterward, arises the question oft discussed in barracks: How shall I qualify myself for promotion? What is demanded of me, and how shall my proficiency be made known? Make education a factor in advancement: 1st, *Compulsory Education*. 2d, *Examination*. 3d, *Promotion*. Thus, incentive, a powerful lever to move men to study, is at once supplied.

In fine, education, general and technical, is needed in the army, that we may move on "*pari passu*" in this progressive age. Compulsory it must be, as all soldiers', aye, and citizens' duties are dominated by that word. A broad and comprehensive scheme must be formulated and officially promulgated, of which nothing can be said in this restricted article. To meet a universal demand, books treating on subjects cognate to the profession of arms should be supplied for the use of the enlisted men.

Fair material is on hand, knowledge is sought, the field is fallow and only lacks intelligent, systematic working.

HENRY WARNER,

*Private, Co. "B," Batt. of Engineers.*

WILLETS POINT, N. Y. II.

Jan. 1, 1887.

VII.

THIS subject should only be considered in respect to the benefit accruing to the Service ; and in that light I can see no reason for introducing it into the Army. No recruit should be accepted who cannot read and write the English language.

It may be argued that it is our duty to educate our fellow-man ; but if the Parent, the Public School, and the Church have failed to do this before the age at which a man can enlist, it would be a waste of time—valuable for other purposes—for the Army to undertake the task. That "a little learning is a dangerous thing" is nowhere better exemplified than in the barrack-room, where the imperfectly educated man becomes a nuisance to his fellows, and a cause of trouble to his superiors, by using his surface knowledge in argument and fault-finding, and in studying out how he can evade duty and contempt discipline and authority. Any system of army education cannot hope to more than, partially, educate the ignorant man after he arrives at the enlisting age.

It may be argued in favor of this question, that it will be the means of officering our army in time of war. If, in the mobilization of our army, the rank and file of the regular army were to be the leaven which would be spread among the mass—a nucleus from which officers and non-commissioned officers would be supplied,—then there would be some ground for compulsory education. But this was not so in our last two great wars, nor would it be so in any war in which this country would be involved. The semi-professional National Guardsman would not receive the enlisted Regular as his superior in the beginning, and his superior education joined to experience would render such supply unnecessary after a very few months.

An intimate knowledge of the rank and file of our army, gained by a service, regular and volunteer, of eighteen years, in a period from 1863 to date, convinces me that the recruits of to-day are better educated than ever before. An observance of the foreign element in our ranks also convinces me that the United States Army must be better educated than any foreign army, and that any claim for superior qualities of any European army over another, based on the grounds of the superior intelligence of the rank and file, is unfounded in fact. Enough of the recruits entering our service are of sufficient intelligence and education to supply non-commissioned officers for a regular army several times larger than it is at present, and for any branch of Service.

The incentives to exertion on the part of the soldier are enough at present to inspire any recruit of common sense (a quality which education cannot supply), to make up the deficiencies which misfortune or his own negligence was responsible for in his life before entering the Service. Opportunities for instruction should be freely offered for those desiring it. Men developing a talent for technical subjects pertaining to the military service should be encouraged to perfect their talent. But to enlist a man for the purpose of educating him that he may be encouraged, at least indirectly, to return to civil life at the end of his first term of service,—decidedly *no*. This is not in the remotest degree the mission of the Army, but on the contrary, those in charge of him should so direct his mind as to continue him in service for the especial benefit of the Service.

Respectfully submitted,

JAMES J. GRIFFIN,  
*1st Sergt., Co. "B," Batt. of Engineers.*

VIII.

I HAVE the honor to submit the following remarks on the subject of compulsory education in the Army :

This subject admits of no debate. It is a recognized want, and I will confine my-

self to a few practical suggestions that may be of use in working out the plan. First in importance is the question of Instructors. Teaching is an art requiring special training and fitness. It would be manifestly unfair to compel officers of the Army to assume duties for which perhaps many of them are not fitted, and to which they could not do full justice. The grade of schoolmaster should be established, and made to rank all non-commissioned officers—pay and allowances to be in proportion. This I think would be sufficient inducement to attract a competent corps of instructors. After the system is fairly started no more schoolmasters should be enlisted as such, vacancies to be filled by promotion, thus creating a prize for industrious scholars to strive for.

Books of instruction and reference should be provided by the Government. The studies should be compulsory only to a certain point, say the grammar school course in the public schools. Men completing this course to be given a certificate excusing them from further attendance, should they so desire, and no soldier to be eligible to promotion until he holds such certificate. Recitations in the regular course should be held in the afternoons; two or three a week can easily be spared in winter for this purpose. Study in the higher branches should be optional, and the extra classes held in the evenings. The day rooms that now figure so largely in the construction of barrack buildings could be used as a library and study; games, loud talking, etc., not to be allowed. The squad-rooms are ample for purposes of recreation.

There is one objection I have frequently heard urged against a system of general education for the Army; it is that "nine out of ten men object so strongly to beginning their school days again, that listlessness and inattention would render abortive the efforts of the most competent instructors." Admitting this to be true, what would be the result? There are about 5,000 recruits enlisted annually; now, if at the end of five years, 500 of these men are returned to civil life with a good practical education and a knowledge of military duties, or, as many as may be necessary retained in the Army to fill positions of trust, would not both the country and the army be the gainers? Again, in all large cities, hundreds of men work eight and ten hours a day in shops and factories and spend a couple of hours every night at night-school. If there was a prospect of obtaining an education in the Army, would not many of these men enlist and thereby assist in working out the much-studied problem,—“The improvement of the personnel of the rank and file”? So much for the objection in its entirety. I strongly dissent, however, to the view that nothing can be done to overcome the listlessness of the nine supposed recalcitrants. Under a proper system, study would be a duty as much as guard or drill, and dereliction could be conquered the same in one case as in the other. I think the question as to whether the men desire the system or not can be safely left to themselves, and to that purpose I had a vote taken in this battery, with the following result:

For Compulsory Education,	-	-	-	-	-	58
Against “	“	-	-	-	-	4
Not voting,	-	-	-	-	-	2
						—

Strength of Battery, 64

Very respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

S. F. BURGoyNE,

FORT HAMILTON, N. Y. H.

1st Sergt., Light Batt. "F," 5th Artillery.

Jan. 5, 1887.

## IX.

LIEUT. G. W. WHISTLER, 5TH ARTILLERY.—The subject, as I understand it, before the Institution this afternoon, is not education in general, but compulsory education in the Army. During the past two or three years I have given this subject considerable attention and study, not, however, from a theoretical point of view, but as to the practical advantages that would accrue to the Service by the adoption of some comprehensive system of education, as applied to the enlisted man.

Primarily, I may state that I differ entirely with General Fry as to the right or propriety of the Government's establishing a system of compulsory education in the Service. That the Government is not only fully justified in requiring that amount of education, as a primary condition of enlistment, as will secure a competent class of men, but also of compelling the attendance of the soldier upon such a system of study and practical instruction as will fit him for his duties as a soldier, I consider to be incontrovertible.

The present regulations require not only the practical instruction of the soldier in his duties, but the compulsory recitation upon the part of non-commissioned officers in tactics, Roberts' Hand-book, the Artillerist's Manual and various obsolete books. Now, sir, if the Government can compel one soldier to study and recite, it may with equal right compel all soldiers to study and recite. And it is not possible to draw any definite line as to professional studies. The day is past when the most ignorant man could be considered the best soldier. A good common-school education and even more is required to-day, as a valuable adjunct in rendering a man an efficient soldier.

Take my own corps: a non-commissioned officer of artillery is continually required to read angles, use verniers, assist in the use of plane tables, and must necessarily comprehend the method of measuring angles, and making ordinary calculations involving angles and decimals. And I maintain that the Government is fully justified in requiring that they shall fit themselves for such work.

The point, however, to which I would particularly call attention is the great advantage which would accrue to the Service if some such system were adopted.

It will, I think, be fully acknowledged that any system which will render the Army more popular, and attract to our ranks a better class of men, will be an undoubted advantage. Now, sir, as has already been stated, there are many young men, aye, hundreds and thousands who are doing all in their power to obtain an education; thousands of young farmers would gladly work for such an education as would better fit them for the battle of life, had they the means, or were it possible to obtain the same by manual labor. They do not wish, they do not need a higher education, nor possibly would it be wise to give them, in the short time they can spare for such purpose, an education of pure mind development. What they need is knowledge of the kind that will help them in the world.

Now let it be understood that a young man, may, by enlisting in the Army of the United States, not only make a competent livelihood for three years, but at the same time obtain a good education and be able to lay up two or three hundred dollars to begin life with, and sir, instead of being obliged to send our recruiting officers into the slums of our cities to obtain recruits, we would be besieged with applications for enlistment. Especially will this be true if the instructors are officers. Hearing of the vote taken in Battery "F," of the 5th Artillery, a similar vote was taken at our post: Of twenty-six men voting, sixteen were in favor of compulsory education provided they could be taught by officers. This is an extremely natural feeling; and I believe that to make education a success—whether compulsory or not, the officer must be the teacher. Let it be known then, that in the Army men can obtain an education with

West Point graduates as teachers, and we will not lack for applications for enlistment.

Whatever may be said of the West Point course, one thing must be acknowledged; that what a man learns in that course he knows, and is able to put this knowledge in language and convey it to others.

I believe if the young graduates, on leaving the Point were to become instructors, it would not only be a great benefit to the enlisted men, and the Army at large—but it would give us a more studious class of young officers.

Outside, however, of this question of the benefit to the Service by making it popular among the people, I believe that the introduction of some such system would be of great benefit to our enlisted men. I deny that we have such an ignorant class of men, that many would not profit by some such system, and would not gladly see it introduced into the Service. Of course, the question as to whether it ought or ought not to be made compulsory is an entirely different proposition. Primarily, I maintain that unless a fixed standard of education at enlistment is adopted, education to a sufficient extent to fit our men for soldiers, should be compulsory; and believe every soldier in our small army should be competent to instruct volunteers in case of war.

If, however, officers are to be the instructors, education must, to a certain extent, be compulsory; as it would be manifestly injurious to discipline to require the attendance of the officers at a recitation, and permit the men to come or not as they might see fit; imagine a drill carried out upon that plan!

In conclusion I would urge the more careful consideration of this subject, which, in my opinion, is to play an important part in the Army of the Future.

## X.

COLONEL JOHN HAMILTON, 5TH ARTILLERY.—As to compulsory education, I cannot agree with General Fry as to the General Government not having the right to force education on the Army. [Here General Fry explains that he had not denied the right to the General Government.]

I misunderstood the General. As an executive officer I have acted but too promptly in carrying out these school orders. At Fort Porter in 1867, being without a post fund, my captains bought school books for their men, hoping for repayment afterward, and I placed the subalterns in charge of the school with good success; but soon one company was sent away, then the whole command was changed, and possibly the captains, now old field officers, may have the old school books on hand as satisfaction for their money and trouble.

Next, when the new board alluded to, directed teachers to be enlisted, I, then in command at Fort Preble, enlisted a teacher, who, when he found he was to occupy only the social garrison position of an enlisted man, applied for and received his discharge.

I don't believe we can get suitable teachers by enlistment. Teachers you may get, but they will either lack "snap," or capacity, or behavior. Proper men will claim social recognition, and pseudo classes, not in line of promotion, are to be deprecated in the Service.

I am sorry for the position that the General takes with reference to the public schools. Poor people cannot educate their children, sometimes think they cannot even spare them to be educated, thus dooming them to an inherited caste ignorance.

Education must be provided for them, and if by the State, that implies compulsory education. The Church, on the other hand, has failed in secular education where it has been confided to it. Ecclesiasticism will ever turn more to the forwarding of the

machinery of the Church than to the secular education of the poor. It is so much easier to teach morals and dogma through a schoolmaster than by personal pastoral and paternal work, extra in time and occasion, that human nature easily satisfies its conscience by teaching men to be good *instead of* worldly wise.

The State may make mistakes in its methods, books, teachers, and bounds, but this does not affect the system. These errors must be corrected. The errors should be corrected at home and in the Church, and then correction in the State follows necessarily.

If latitudinarians have gained the positions as teachers our home education has been at fault, and the Church has not done its duty to society. Let the Church and the home so affect society that the latitudinarian can find no place in the school, and this evil is cured. The school must exist outside of all considerations, for the sake of the State.

As to compulsory education for the soldier, I believe it to be utterly impracticable, however desirable, with our small companies and posts. We are being periodically reminded by the higher authorities that soldierly duties must first be attended to strictly, and then if there be any time to be spared for extra, daily and special duties, well. This is very unpractical in the present condition of our Service. The extent of our military work is narrowed down to almost nothing. We must first look out for our roofage, supplies, construction, repairs, daily service and policing, and then apply ourselves to instruction if the former have not absorbed all our means and time. It will be observed that nearly all who propose schooling, confine it to a day-time instruction—and very properly so—but this practically means to kill all drill and work for half that day, and that means to kill all drill, for the extra duties are as necessary as eating, drinking and sleeping.

When the company is brought to a normal strength, when our posts are complete in equipment and finding—when a compulsory standard is a prerequisite to our officers gaining a grade, and when the company officer can take personal charge of the school, it will be a good time to compel all to attend it.

## XI.

GENERAL HORATIO C. KING.—I have waited, Mr. President, for General Webb, as a leading representative here of the public school system of New York City, and as my senior in age and experience, to reply to the remarks of General Fry.

As a representative of the system in Brooklyn and a member of this Institution, however, I feel that I cannot allow the occasion to pass without a word on my part, lest it may appear that the Institution acquiesces in the somewhat singular propositions presented in General Fry's paper. His argument is so radical that if carried to a logical conclusion, it would not only do away with the public schools as commonly known, but also those other public schools, the Military Academy at West Point and the Naval Academy at Annapolis. In effect, his argument is, "Every man for himself and the d—I take the hindmost." If those, fortunate enough to possess property are not to be taxed for the support of the schools, it may be claimed with equal propriety that property holders are not to be taxed for the ten thousand other public conveniences which, otherwise, would not be accorded to their less fortunate fellow citizens.

Had it not been for the public schools and the generous facilities afforded by West Point, the country would have lost the services of that noble soldier, Hancock, whose

portrait adorns these walls, and Gettysburg might have been a failure.\* This is true also of many of the brave men whose names are written high on the pages of American history.

I think that there is scarcely an argument presented by General Fry that cannot be made to apply with equal force in favor of our public school system. Education is the Nation's bulwark and safeguard. Point to any city where the civil government is the worst, and there you will find the largest proportion of ignorance. The temporarily successful reign of Tweedism, which General Fry has cited in support of his views, was due almost entirely to the blind following of the masses of the uneducated, whose highest ideas of civil government were embraced in the iniquitous spoils system. Successful robbery was to their minds the acme of statesmanship. The loyal citizen, educated to believe that his highest duty was the preservation of honor and honesty in the administration of public trusts, revolted at the vile encroachments of ignorance and hurled the thieves from power. With education comes a greater sense of self-respect, a nobler love of right, and a more devoted patriotism.

In whatever sphere of life a man may move, whether high or humble, education betters his condition, improves the value of his labor and exalts the duty which he has to perform. This was eminently true of the private soldier in the late Rebellion. It was held by many intelligent officers before the War, that the best soldiers were those who, without mental training or culture, knew simply enough to give unquestioning obedience to orders. But the enlistment of a grand army of volunteers speedily eradicated this impression. The volunteers sprang to arms from the store, the office, the workshop and the farm, the largest proportion of whom were men of fair education, well informed in public affairs, and capable of discussing intelligently the issues involved in the terrible and fratricidal contest. They were not mere machines, wooden soldiers and unthinking, but full of intelligence and patriotic purpose, inspired to fight, not because they were ordered to do so, but to effect the grand result which they hoped to accomplish, the final restoration of the Union and the cementing together of the country, threatened with disruption. They knew that without its complete rehabilitation, life in this Nation would be insecure and scarce worth the living. These men could plan campaigns, in their own way, more or less crude, and they could always explain, more readily perhaps than the Generals themselves, around the camp-fire while discussing their coffee and hard tack, why battles were lost and victories did not yield better fruits, but never for a moment did this facility of criticism lessen their ardor or determination when the long roll sounded and they fell in, shoulder to shoulder, to face death in behalf of the country which had done so much for them, and for those dearer at the home fireside who waited in breathless anxiety the bulletins from the front. With such intelligence and such patriotism inspired by the blessed institutions of their fatherland, it took but a short time to make regulars of volunteers, and the distinction between regulars and volunteers was speedily effaced. And where on earth was there ever congregated a grander army than that which swept through Virginia to Appomattox and from Atlanta to the Sea?

\* NOTE.—General King was here interrupted with the statement that General Hancock's father was not in need of assistance in the proper education of his children. The following is from a biography of General Hancock, published at the time of his death, in the *New York Herald* of February 10, 1886.

"His education up to his sixteenth year was at the Norristown Academy. \* \* \* Hancock's father (a lawyer himself) had designed his son for the legal profession, but unforeseen circumstances changed his purpose. \* \* \* The appointment (to West Point) was made by Mr. Joseph Farnace, at that time representing the District in Congress. Mr. Farnace was a friend of young Hancock's father, respected him as a citizen and as a man, *knew his struggle to educate his boys properly*, and saw also in Winfield the evidence of a spirit and ability that would do credit to the country under the training of the Military School."

If education is good in time of war, it is none the less valuable in time of peace. There may be practical difficulties in the way of its accomplishment. If, as Colonel Hamilton says, the men cannot be spared from necessary military and police duties to attend school in the day time, it may be impracticable to compel attendance at night, but these are matters of which I am not sufficiently well informed to speak. That ignorance should be abolished from the Army seems to me to be most desirable. The men should have the opportunity to acquire a fair education under competent instructors. It will invite a better class of enlistments and encourage them to aspire for promotion, as Lieut. Whistler has said, and even though there may be little opportunity to gain the coveted shoulder-straps, the non-commissioned officer's chevrons are always within their reach; and upon their discharge the men are better fitted to enter upon the field of life in the strife and struggle for a livelihood. Ignorance is the twin brother of idleness, and both are too frequently next of kin to crime. Education and aspiration go hand in hand, and the world can take no backward steps in the system of free public training without drifting upon the rocks of political corruption and anarchy.

## XII.

GENERAL ALEX. S. WEBB, PRESIDENT, COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF N. Y.—When I came to the Island for the purpose of hearing the subject of compulsory education in the army discussed, I little thought that at this hour of the day I would find myself brought in antagonism to my life-long friend, General J. B. Fry, and upon a subject which does not belong to the Military Service Institution, as a matter for its discussion—a subject which has been my study for seventeen years—a subject which involves my giving an excuse to my brother officers of the Army for my being a part of it and a representative of its highest work.

Here, this position seems to me to be one both unnatural and uncalled for, and before being called upon so urgently by my friend, General King, I acknowledge that I had made up my mind not to reply in any way to that portion of his essay which has referred to the public school system of the United States. But being thus forced to speak in regard to a subject entirely outside of the matter under discussion, I begin by stating that I should at all times, prefer to write an answer, to such heavy charges against the whole public school system, in the privacy of my own study. I therefore limit myself to-day, to a short statement of some of the facts which would be the subjects of such an essay in response to General Fry, were I afforded the time and the opportunity to make a proper reply.

I would show that our common schools are, have been, and will continue to be the conservators of our civil liberties. I would show that to them is due the dissemination of virtue and patriotism, and a certain amount of learning necessary to produce the above virtues among the people. I would show what effect the public schools have had upon the diminution of crime consequent upon ignorance. I would show that the system is, through its nature and influence, absolutely antagonistic to the usurpation of despotic power in this country. I would show also, that this system is opposed to the growth of bigotry. In the solitude of my study, I would take up from fourteen to twenty points bearing upon his remarks, and from data in my possession referring not solely to New York State, but to all other States, I would prove to him that without this public education, the mass of the citizens of the United States would not be prepared for an intelligent exercise of the prerogatives of American citizenship.

From this discussion, I think I could make it appear to all of you that all of that

brain power which has been most active in developing the material resources of our country, which has produced the most successful merchant, the greatest inventor, the most world-renowned agriculturist, the strongest and most revered of our national statesmen, has been the public school system of the United States and not the private school system.

But General Fry distinctly stated to you that if the public school system were to be abandoned to-day, the whole subject would be settled at once by the people of the United States, who would soon establish an educational system which would be entirely according to the people's interests. Well, I'll meet General Fry upon the subject of the people's interests.

The people's best interests established public school education. Destroy this system of public education in the United States and the people will establish another just like it. What can the General mean? The whole system was established by the vote of the people. The people established it, the people use it, and the people are satisfied with it. Who will dare to destroy it? Not the people who voted for it. This question has been settled by ballot too often to permit of my statements being considered mere theoretical statements. The college over which I preside was established by a vote of the people. When the proposition was made to dispense with it, it was retained through a petition sent to Albany signed by 80,000 voters.

And, Mr. Chairman, inasmuch as under this free public system, the people obtain through their own servants, by the best system, the best education, in the cheapest way, you may rest assured that in America it is a dangerous thing to open the attack upon a system of education to which we, as a people, owe so much. But, Mr. Chairman, unfortunately my friend, General Fry, has referred to the system of public education in the United States, as one of the charities of the several States. I would that General Fry were running for office, even as sexton in a church in whose yard his ideas on this subject were to be forever buried, if he would only announce that he was opposed to public education, I would beat him for that office. And any politician or any man in the United States, who may, either now or in the future, advance such ideas as are contained in his paper on this subject of public education, is, and will be, as certainly doomed to defeat as is the proposition so zealously advanced by him to-day.

## EXTRACTS

FROM THE MINUTES OF THE

### UNITED STATES MILITARY PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY.

At an occasional meeting, held at Washington, Jan. 30th, 1808.

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#### UNITED STATES MILITARY PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY.

**I**N conformity to a provision in the constitution of the United States Military Philosophical Society, a meeting was called by Col. JONATHAN WILLIAMS, President thereof, and held at the War Office on Saturday, the 30th of January.

The business was opened by the President, who laid before the Society a comprehensive view of the origin, progress, and present state of the Society, together with a summary account of the communications and donations that have been made to it since the publication in January, 1807.

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#### THE ADDRESS.

*Gentlemen* :—I have thought it an indispensable duty, on my passage through this city, to call you together ; and it is particularly gratifying to meet you in the capital of the Union, at a time when, of all others, the usefulness and importance of such an institution, as this is, must come home to all your feelings. Two belligerent nations divide the power of Europe between them ; the one, extending its maritime arm over all the watry world, the other, either controlling or holding within its grasp the whole

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NOTE.—This interesting document has been deposited in the Library of the Military Service Institution, and on account of its professional value as a legacy from a kindred society, is here reprinted for the information of members and subscribers.

territory between the Mediterranean and Baltic Seas. Neutrality has been driven from the ocean; and is now hidden within our ports. With both these gigantic powers we have necessary relations, and to preserve as much as possible a just impartiality between them, the government has suspended our commercial connexions with all. This state of things cannot long continue; but whatever may be the event, in whatever direction the storm may burst, we ought to be ready for it: not merely so; for should it blow over, we ought to remember the old adage, and in future most sacredly adhere to it: "In Peace prepare for War."

The sentiment contained in this adage gave the first idea to the founders of this Society, and the complete exemplification of it, is all its end and aim.

It never was intended that it should become a political engine to aid any sect or party; it has no more to do with politics, as such, than it has with religion; it respects the correct principles of both, but meddles with neither. It is founded on patriotism of the purest kind; it proposes to defend this, its own country, and while its efforts are directed to draw forth all the energy of the nation, its object is to procure, preserve and perpetuate peace.

*Scientia in bello pax*—This is its motto, and the seal displays the maxim. There we see Minerva causing an olive branch to start from the ground by the touch of her spear; the goddess of Science, in full armour, produces peace by the very lance with which she is prepared for battle.

The wars of conquest the Society disclaims; the contests of ambition it despises: Firm to one object, it has paid no attention to the shades of difference in political opinions, and takes into its bosom the well-meaning patriots of all parties; relying firmly, that whosoever may administer the government, we shall all be true to the principles of the Constitution and support the authorities it has created; and whenever the time shall come which may call forth our exertions, we shall break to pieces the shackles of prejudice, and unite in one common cause!

The United States having become a nation within the memory of many of us, it naturally follows, that institutions, which are independent of foreign control, must have a recent origin. Many have risen in our country, from very minute causes; the accidental meetings of a few men of talents, a few hints, perhaps, from some persons present at these meetings, have given

rise to most of the societies for the promotion of useful knowledge, of agriculture, of commerce, of the arts and sciences, in almost every quarter of our extensive country. It is hoped, therefore, that this offspring of the Corps of Engineers, itself but just emerging from infancy, will be viewed with complacency by all who consider that the importance of the end ought to justify the temerity of the means: An acorn, planted by a child, may become the pride of the forest.

It must be self-evident to the reflecting mind, in taking a retrospect of the origin, cause, and various events of our Revolution, that there exists in our country a very considerable mass of military science, derived by many still living, from hardy experience in the field. By others from tradition, now locked up in the stores of memory, which they have received from their sires, who have "fought their battles o'er again," for the instruction of their children. And much may lie buried in the dusty files of neglected cabinets. By others in fine, who, since the termination of our struggles for independence, have travelled over Europe, and collected rich treasures, from personal intercourse with the great characters of the age, or by free access to extensive military deposits. While existing in this scattered state, our country cannot derive advantage from the improvement of her sons. Individuals might possess genius and talents, and be proficient in architecture, sculpture and painting; but, without edifices, without statues, without the exhibition of the breathing canvas—the genius would expire, the talents would be lost, and the art would be buried with the artist. It is thus in military science—without plans, without models, without the detail of all existing causes and effects, military experience is confined within the limits of human life; and every successor has to learn in the same dear school, in which he can arrive at proficiency only, when his vigour is exhausted. To arrest these ravages of time, to collect into one mass all the military knowledge now dispersed, in order to give it out again, as the exigencies of our country may require, for the purposes of universal instruction, are the primary objects of the plan; and form the motives for attempting a permanent establishment.

The theories of Europe are undoubtedly the basis of a military education. But, the practice of our own warriors in our own country, the experience and observation of men, who have had local circumstances in view, are far more essential. With this

knowledge we may be able, in case of invasion, to renew the scenes of Saratoga and York.

It will naturally occur, that although the title of the Society expressly designates it as a military one, yet, the same title connects it with every branch of physics. Science is in its own nature so diffuse, that it is almost impossible to designate any dividing lines. Astronomy, geography and mathematics, run into each other at every step. Chymistry and mineralogy are inseparable. The laws of motion, mechanics, and projectiles are also interwoven, and in some way or other (although the extreme points may be distant) the gradations become insensible. Military science embraces all these branches, it therefore has as good a claim to the title of philosophical as any other, and considering the end in view (*peace*) the term is doubtless appropriate.

It would be tedious, and to this audience absolutely useless, to go into further detail, to establish a position which displays its own demonstration.

After the plan of the Society was formed, it was submitted to the President of the United States, requesting him to become its patron. The request was readily granted in terms of great complacency, and in a manner highly gratifying to the feelings of its projectors. Although this can only be considered binding on any future President, as far as relates to a decorous regard to his predecessor and the public utility resulting from our association; yet there can be no doubt of its being continued to us as long as we shall, by our labors, continue to merit the public attention. A constitution was formed, but as in similar cases, it was impossible to foresee the operation of all its parts. When it came to be put into practice, some of its conditions, although of very trifling import as to principle, became extremely inconvenient; one of these conditions was, the restricting the meetings to a place, where only a few members could attend; and it is owing to this amendment in the third section of the fourth chapter, that I am enabled to meet you at this time. This constitution has been sent with a circular letter to all the members; and it will be understood that the approbation of this meeting is tacitly expressed, unless some member shall, before we separate, make any remarks to the contrary, in which case a vote will be taken. Having a few copies of the constitution here, they are laid before you. In one of the bye-laws it was enacted, that in case a member did not accept his election in four calendar months, it was

understood that he had declined—but this was found to operate very injuriously: For in some instances the notification failed, in others, the answers did not get to hand; and most of the members who did not answer, were unacquainted with the necessity of it, since the notices did not specify any such condition. This by-law, therefore, has been repealed, and members are not limited to time; though it is certainly a reasonable expectation that an answer should be given. The members who have accepted are many, and in doing so, there have been expressions of great satisfaction on the occasion. Even the few who have declined, have done it in terms of high approbation of the measure, politely acknowledging the intended honor, and the reasons for declining have been of an individual nature, under circumstances altogether personal to themselves. To this, however, there have been two exceptions—both from men who have filled dignified stations, and are equally distinguished for their high characters and public services. The first declined for reasons which were so exclusively political, that they were considered irrelevant to the objects of this society, and of course need not be noticed. The second declined for more appropriate reasons, which are best expressed in the words of the writer himself. “I can (says he) entertain no doubt of the importance of improving and extending military knowledge in the United States; but to that end I think other means than those embraced by the plan of your institution requisite. Enough of theory may be found in books accessible to every military man, or if (for want of adequate funds) a library of the best books on the subject be not now attainable by the officers; provision ought to be made by law. This library may be lodged where the collections by the Society are proposed to be deposited. The *one* and the *great thing* needful is the application of rules in the *practical* instruction of a *competent number* of our citizens who are inclined to devote themselves to the military life, in *all* the branches of the military art. By their instrumentality, military knowledge might be speedily diffused throughout the army, whenever the situation of the United States shall make the raising of one indispensable or expedient.”

These sentiments indeed display to us how useful a member this gentleman might have been. He states to us what ought to replace this institution, by stating the very objects it aims at—“A military library where the collections of the Society are to be

"deposited."—"Application of rule to practical instruction," and "the diffusion of knowledge through an army:" All these are embraced in the plan. But he goes on—"Should Congress refuse to make such a provision, individual efforts will be of little avail." To this opinion we ought not to subscribe; what would become of every species of individual zeal, if we were to declare at the threshold that it would be unavailing? Let us adopt a contrary opinion, and say that individual zeal *must* prevail, and that as long as we live the ill success shall never be imputed to *our* neglect? The very objects here pointed out will be attained, our society will become a corporate body, it will be established in the capital of the Union, and its self-evident usefulness will supersede the necessity of all reasoning upon the subject; combined with and taking under its fostering protection the Military Academy, already established by law, it will afford the most useful lessons to our young military students, and both the establishments will flourish together, under the eyes of the collected wisdom of our nation.

No Society can exist without funds: for however small its expenses may be, they should be equally borne. In 1806, a contribution of five dollars per annum was imposed upon each member, payable at any time within the first six months of every year, and at whatever time of the year an election is made, the contribution for that year becomes due. A sum so trifling, it cannot, it is presumed, be thought burdensome; and when, at a future day, the Society shall have a surplus stock, premiums may be offered for such models and other works of genius as may deserve the encouragement, either of a pecuniary reward, or the honorable testimony of a medal; and important military publications will be purchased to enrich its library, which at present consists only of donations. All views of amassing wealth for any other purpose are too mean and unworthy to admit a supposition that the Society can ever be suspected of them. It has begun with the greater sum, owing to the necessary expenses at the outset, and the small number of contributors. This tax will decrease in proportion as the members grow numerous; it cannot increase, and may be reduced to a very trifle.

The Society has paid all expenses hitherto, and the treasurer has at this time upwards of two hundred and seventy dollars in hand; but the Society stands engaged to pay about fifty dollars for some models of arms now making, and four hundred to the

engraver of the diploma, which when finished will be deposited in the hands of the treasurer, Mr. Popham, in New York, of which, notice will be given, that each member may apply for his own. In this place, it may not be improper to give an account of the drawing for this object, with which the Society has been favored by Mr. Louis Simond, of New York, one of its members. At the superior part is a representation of the city of Syracuse, and on an advanced tower Archimedes is seen, with a large concave mirror, collecting and reflecting the rays of the sun on the fleet of Marcellus, some of which are retiring in confusion, while others are enveloped in flame. Around the picture we perceive a collection of ancient military insignia, and in the foreground are some of the more modern and ponderous implements of war. This is intended as a representation of the first member of our motto: Science in War—the latter member being the consequence or result of the former one, is represented by emblems of peace: The implements of husbandry on one side, and those of fishery on the other, are displayed in pendant festoons; and below them is an elliptical medallion, containing a rural view, under a mild and cheering sky, with one man ploughing and another sowing. Either of which may be understood to represent the alternate husbandman and warrior, so often cited as the model for a military chief, in the act of cultivating his "little fields." In the body of the plate is a blank certificate in elegant script, to be filled with the name of the member elected.

When the original projectors had formed the plan, it was a matter of serious consideration, how to designate characters for members. It was at first thought proper to select bodies of men generally, such as officers of the army and navy, legislators, and men in dignified stations. But it occurred, that by choosing in that collective manner, no compliment would be paid to the genius or talents of any individual; and therefore, what was designed to be an honor, might not be felt as such. It was of course determined to make some selections individually, not with a view of filling the Society, but to extend the right of proposing candidates, and nominations were made by each of the founders, according as their personal knowledge or the general public estimation of characters directed, without any previous knowledge of their disposition to associate with them, and without any attempt at exclusive choice. As the Society has increased, this mode of selection consequently increases with it, every member

having a right of nominating whom he pleases, and it is hoped and expected that it will be exercised.

But, as the dignity of the institution requires (now that it has taken so respectable a constituency) that what is intended an honorable tribute of respect, should be so considered by the receiver, it will be prudent in each proposing member, to have some good reason to believe, that the candidate he proposes should not only have the requisite qualities for an useful associate, but be of a disposition to aid, as far as may be in his power, the laudable views of the Society.

It is hoped that no man whose pretensions to such an association indisputably result from station or character, will suppose himself to have been purposely omitted. It would have been presumptuous in the projectors to have monopolised the right of nomination by at once choosing all whom they esteemed worthy.

Having thus laid before you the motives by which the founders of this Society have been influenced, and the measures that have been taken to give it a form and consistence, with a slight expression of its views in attempting a permanent establishment, I shall proceed to give an account of its progress and present state. But my memory intrudes a melancholy reflection; and forces me into a sorrowful digression.

Young as the Society is, it has lived long enough to see three of its distinguished members snatched from it by the hand of death! PATTERSON! The enlightened and virtuous patriot—the profound impartial judge—the unassuming and useful citizen—the amiable friend and social companion, is numbered with the dead! PREBLE! The pride of our navy—the hero of Tripoli—he who silenced barbarian batteries, is himself entombed in awful silence! BISSELL! A veteran indeed—who, after sharing in our Revolution, continued in the army till the close of the last year closed his efficient services—in arms, to the last moment of his life, he died, uniformly supporting the character of a brave and honest soldier! But, although dead, they shall live in the memory of this Society—they will stand upon its records; and notwithstanding the mournful monosyllable shall be written against their names, posterity will see with complacency, and the members of this Society will remark with pride, that such distinguished patriots continue to adorn the list of their associates.

It is natural for most men to hope that their good deeds will not be forgotten; and we may be allowed to feel some satis-

faction in the reflection that our names will live in the annals of this institution. If this be a weakness, it is a laudable one. Because it tends to excite an useful emulation.

At the close of the last year, a circular communication was made to the then existing members; stating, in a summary way, all its transactions to that period. In my circular letter, accompanying that communication, I took the liberty of observing that it cannot be too often nor too strongly reiterated that as much as our government is opposed to a standing army, so much ought we to preserve and make perfect the means of organising a "temporary one." We place our great national defence, in case of a contest that should require a very vigorous effort, on the militia of our country. Be it so. But, ought not our citizens to be instructed? Ought they not to have disseminated among them, as far as it is practicable, every principle of discipline, tactics and martial regulation? Ought they not to know what has been formerly done in the like cases, in order to know what is worthy of imitation, and what might be avoided. Of what avail is individual courage, individual patriotism, and individual talents, if the combination fails! It is not elegant parade, expert exercise on *chosen* fields, nor a general knowledge of arms that makes the soldier. It is discipline, it is subordination, it is confidence in each other, and a certainty that all will stand to the end of the contest, whatever may be the perils or the privations it occasions. It is, in short, individualizing a body of troops, so that its head can direct the operations of its parts as effectually as the mind can direct the operations of the natural body, and command the functions of all its members. When we speak of bringing untaught militia into the field to repel invasion at any point, *until* regular troops can be brought to reinforce or to replace them, what do we (in effect) say to our citizens? We say that they are to go into the field to be beaten; but, although beaten, they will check the enemy till more regular troops come on to take the glory of a victory, rendered the more easy by their sacrifices: Like the troops of ants in Africa, which extinguish a fire by sending their front ranks to be first consumed in smothering it, that the remainder may march in safety over the crust of their cindered bodies. But who are these militia so cheaply considered as to be thus exposed? The fathers, the husbands, the sons, and the brothers of the surrounding families are brought to oppose well-instructed and well-disciplined troops, every man of

whom that may be killed is in the same moment forgotten ; while our dispersed militia return to homes, where at every door either a mother, a wife, a daughter or a sister stands in despair, lamenting their losses, and loading with reproaches that country which did not provide disciplined soldiers to meet foreign veterans.

Our warriors of former days have performed many brilliant exploits ; but they may have met with insurmountable obstacles. Our infant navy has performed the feats of manhood—but no naval character will say that mistakes have not been committed. The knowledge of both, that have accrued by land and sea, would now be useful. A good pilot thinks himself but half instructed if he only knows a safe channel ; he ought to know where the rocks and quicksands lie, in case he should be driven out of it.

I remember in the year '74, hearing a noble Lord in the House of Peers exclaim, "What signifies the Americans having "an army—they have neither discipline nor military knowledge, "and cannot withstand British veterans?" The battle of Lexington, which soon followed, may have proved the former part of the assertion ; but it shewed also what courage, inspired by patriotism, can do. The victory of that memorable day, however, was but a spark produced by sudden collision, and no good statesman, nor any experienced general would rely on such a state of things for a long and steady resistance.

On the continent of Europe we find not only the historical traces of every campaign most carefully preserved, but all the motions of the troops, all the positions taken, all the changes of the face of the country, whether by change of circumstances or change of place—detailed plans, in short, of every battle, are fully delineated, and the engravings are lodged among the military archives of the nation. But with us, what have we ? We have rapid sketches of the public events of a civil and military nature crowded together, in biographical and political histories, in such a manner as to render a separation impossible, with any degree of intelligence on the subject ; in a few instances, indeed, these are accompanied by maps or plans, and attempts at delineation by an historian who writes at the distance of many years, for readers not interested in the military manœuvres by which this battle was won, or the errors by which that was lost. If we had regular plans of all the battles that have been fought in America, if we had topographical maps of the different passes, the open country, the defiles, the plains, the ravines, the creeks, all the

advantages and obstacles upon a large scale, we should know the points to which our enemy should be decoyed, and the manner of attacking him to certain advantage. But, above all, the notes, the remarks, the hints, the plans, and all the ideas that were made or expressed at the time, either written or verbal, by the great characters that may have gone before us, or may still live, would be a desirable acquisition. What makes the want of these particulars the more necessary, is, the unfavorable impression and discouraging conclusions that have been drawn from former failures, which, if all the circumstances were known, might serve to establish a very opposite maxim.

We have heard it a thousand times repeated, that batteries cannot annoy ships; because in the early part of our Revolution, the temporary works on North River, bearing that denomination, have been passed with impunity.

All we know at this day is the naked fact, which, without the attending circumstances, ought no more to influence the judgment than ancient failures of an attempt to fly should prejudice us against the art of ærostation. But another naked fact of an opposite nature is well known, and the vestige of it is still existing in the Delaware. But it will be said that local circumstances were also different. This is the very point in question; what were these local circumstances? What were the causes of immediate failure in one instance, and firm resistance in the other? If the living characters who directed these operations, and have acquired a just tribute of fame, would deposit all the details of them in this Society, many useful hints might be given and applied to works now to be undertaken.

I beg leave to close this subject with a remark: That although enthusiasm upon most occasions tends much to lessen the weight of an opinion, and the soundness of the judgment is generally measured by the considerate coolness of the expression; yet, when important machines are to be put in motion by small and minute means, the elasticity of the spring has sometimes an effect which no other power could produce. The spring in this instance I acknowledge to be weak, but if the parts of the machine should sustain harmonious motion, it may eventually realize enthusiastic expectations, and reward zealous and faithful endeavors for the public good.

The President then laid before the Society the following sum-

mary view of the communications and donations that have been made since the last publication in January, 1807.

\* \* \* \* \*

COL. ALLAN M'LANE, formerly captain of light horse in the Revolutionary Army, has presented his journal, with many original papers, containing a very interesting account of occurrences from 1775, to the end of the war; among these are several original general orders by General Washington himself, and one in particular, when the British had possession of Philadelphia, is contained in 27 questions which Capt. M'Lane, as commandant of a reconnoitering detachment, consisting of 100 men, is directed to answer by his observations. This mode of directing the attention of a detachment for observation to certain points, by means of questions to be answered, is so extremely useful, that it cannot be considered improper to give it at length, and perpetuate this relic of our illustrious chief, in the form of a model, for any future similar occasion.

QUESTIONS IN GENERAL WASHINGTON'S HAND WRITING.

First. What number of troops supposed to be in Gen. Howe's army, and how disposed of?

2d. What works thrown up, in and about the city, and what cannon in them?

3d. Have any detachments been made over to the Jersey, and for what purpose?

4th. How many men have they sent over there, and how many pieces of cannon?

5th. What kind of cannon? Whether only field pieces or larger cannon?

6th. What preparations are they making on the water, are they fitting out ships, gallies, fire rafts or floating batteries?

7th. Do they think they can stay in Philadelphia if their shipping cannot pass the forts?

8th. Are they resolved to make any further attempts on both the forts or either of them, and in what way, whether by storm or siege?

9th. Can you discover whether they will attempt anything against the forts, and where, observe carefully the preparations making on the river and along the wharves, it is of great importance to know the time, or near it?

10th. Is there any talk of leaving Philadelphia and by what route, observe carefully what they are doing with the waggons, whether their baggage is packed up, and what directions their waggons receive?

11th. Are the tories and friends of the British army under much apprehension of their leaving town, and what preparations are they making to remove themselves or their effects?

12th. For what purpose is it understood, the bridge is thrown over the middle ferry, and what force is kept on the west side of the Schuylkill?

13th. Has the bridge been injured by the late storm, or is it passable?

14th. Where are the grenadiers, light infantry, and rangers, and are they making any preparations to move, be particularly careful in observing their motions?

15th. What number of men are sent over to Carpenter's and Province Islands, and how often are they relieved?

16th. In what condition are those banks since the late rain, can waggons and carriages pass so as to transport provisions and stores from the ships to the town?

17th. In what condition are the troops for provisions, and in what articles is there the greatest scarcity?

18th. How are the inhabitants situated for provisions?

19th. What impression has the news of Gen. Burgoyne's surrender made on the British army?

20th. Is there any conversation in the British army, or among the inhabitants of the city, of Gen. Howe's coming out to meet Gen. Washington?

21st. What is the British army now employed about, note carefully the prices of everything?

22d. Does continental money rise or fall in value in the town?

23d. Can you learn whether there are any preparations making or any intentions to go up the Delaware, to burn the frigates and vessels up there?

24th. Find out what duty the soldiers do, and whether they are contented, how many nights in the week they are in bed?

25th. Inquire particularly into the treatment of the prisoners in the new gaol, so that if necessary you make oath of it.

26th. Do they compel any to enlist by starving, or otherwise ill treating them?

27th. Find out how far the redoubts between Delaware and Schuylkill are apart, and whether there are lines or abattis between the redoubts.

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A LIST OF THE

UNITED STATES MILITARY PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY.

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*PATRON, THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.*

OFFICERS FOR THE YEAR 1808.

*President*, Jonathan Williams, Col. of Engineers,

*Vice President*, Charles C. Pinkney, of Charleston, S. C.,

*Recording Secretary*, Francis D. Mason, Professor in the Military Academy,

*Corresponding Secretary*, Joseph G. Swift, Major of Engineers,

*Treasurer*, William Popham, of New York,

*Keeper of the Cabinet*, George Bomford, Captain of Engineers.

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Walter K. Armistead, Captain of Engineers,

Gen. John Armstrong, Minister U. S. in Paris,

John Allen, Counsellor at Law, in Litchfield, Connecticut,

John Q. Adams, Senator U. S.

James A. Bayard, Senator U. S.

Samuel Babcock, Lieutenant of Engineers,

Henry Burbeck, Col. Commandant of Eastern Division of Army U. S.

Joel Barlow, of Washington,

Joseph Bloomfield, Governor of New Jersey,

Clement Biddle, formerly Quarter Master General,

William R. Boates, Captain of Infantry, (Olmulgee, Old Fields, Georgia),

Charles Biddle, late Vice President of Pennsylvania,

Stephen R. Bradley, Senator U. S.

Lloyd Beall, Captain commanding at Rhode Island,

Russell Bissell, [dead] Major of Infantry,

Joseph Blyth, George Town, S. Carolina,

John Bullus, Navy Agent at New York,

James M. Brown,

Daniel A. Buck, Lieutenant of Engineers,

William Bainbridge, Capt. Navy U. S.

William C. C. Claiborne, Governor of

Territory New Orleans,

George Clinton, Vice President of the United States,

Dewit Clinton, Mayor of New York,

Thomas H. Cushing, Col. of 2d Regiment of Infantry U. S.

- Daniel Clark, Delegate in Congress from New Orleans,  
 William Crane, of New Jersey, Clarke,  
 Philip Van Cortland, of New York,  
 George Clinton, junr. of New York,  
 Joseph Clay, of Philadelphia.  
 Eli B. Clemson, Capt. Infantry U. S. (St. Louis, Louisiana)  
 John Cassin, Capt. Commanding Navy Yard,  
 General David Cobb, Taunton, Massachusetts,  
 General Henry Dearborne, Secretary of War,  
 Edward De Russey, Cadet of Engineers,  
 Stephen Decatur, Capt. of the Navy U. S.  
 Benjamin Dearborn, of Boston,  
 Jonathan Dayton, late Senator U. S.  
 Wm. R. Davie, late Governor N. Carolina, (Envoy to France)  
 William Dessausure, of Charleston,  
 William Eaton, late General at Derne, (Brimfield, Massachusetts)  
 Thomas B. Earle, Adjutant Gen. State of N. Carolina,  
 Lieut. John R. Fenwick, Marine Corps,  
 Constant Freeman, Lieut. Col. U. S. Artillery (Natchitoches, Territory Orleans)  
 George Fleming, late superintendent Military Stores West Point,  
 Nehemiah Freeman, Capt. Commanding at Boston,  
 Robert Fulton, New York.  
 Charles Gratiot, Capt. of Engineers,  
 John Garnet, Brunswick, New Jersey.  
 Peter Gansevorth, Military Agent at Albany,  
 Nicholas Gilman, Senator U. S.  
 John F. Grimke, Judge of Superior Court, S. Carolina,  
 Abijah Hammond, of New York,  
 Robert Goodloe Harper, Counsellor at Law, Baltimore,  
 David Humphreys, late Envoy to Spain,  
 William Hull, Governor at Detroit,  
 William H. Harrison, Governor of Indiana Territory, Vincennes)  
 John Hall, Capt. Marines,  
 Thomas Hunt, Col. of 1st Infantry, (St. Louis, Louisiana)  
 George Izard, late Captain of Artillery,  
 Thomas Jefferson, President of the United States,  
 John Johnson, Lieutenant of Marines,  
 Rufus King, late Minister of U. S. to Britain,  
 Jacob Kingsbury, Lieut. Col. of 1st Infantry, (Fort Adams, Mississippi Territory)  
 Benjamin Latrobe, Director of Public Buildings U. S.  
 Gen. Benjamin Lincoln, now Collector at Boston,  
 John Langdon, Governor of New Hampshire,  
 Tobias Lear, Consul of U. S. at Algiers,  
 Robert R. Livingston, late Minister U. S. to France,  
 David Lenox, late Major, now President of Bank U. S.  
 Merriwether Louis, Governor of Louisiana, (St. Louis)  
 Jared Mansfield, Lieut. Col. of Engineers, acting Surveyor General of U. S.  
 Alexander Macomb, Major of Engineers,  
 William M'Ree, Captain of Engineers,  
 James Madison, Secretary of State of U. S.  
 Jacob Morton, Brigadier Gen. of New York Artillery,  
 Thomas M'Kean, Governor of Pennsylvania,  
 General William M'Pherson, now Naval Officer U. S. at Philadelphia,  
 Gen. John Marshall, now Chief Justice U. S.  
 James Monroe, late Minister U. S. to Britain,  
 John Milledge, Senator U. S.  
 William M'Creery, Member of Congress,  
 Jonathan Mason, of Boston, Massachusetts,  
 Alexander Murray, Capt. U. S. Navy,  
 Julian U. Niemcewicz, formerly of Poland, Citizen U. S.  
 William North, late Adjutant Gen. U. S.  
 Aaron Ogden, late Colonel U. S.  
 Pressly N. O. Brannon, Artillery U. S. (Michilimackinac)  
 William Paterson, [dead] late Judge of Supreme Court,  
 Edw'd Preble [dead], late Commodore U. S.

- William Popham, late Aid to Baron Steuben, Treasurer of U. S. M. P. S. New York,  
 Ninian Pinkney, Capt. of Infantry, (Fort M'Henry)  
 Alden Partridge, Lieut. of Engineers,  
 William Partridge, Lieut. of Engineers,  
 Robert Patton, late Capt. U. S. Army, Post Master, Philadelphia,  
 Thomas Pinkney, late Major of U. S. Army,  
 Moses Porter, Major of Artillery U. S.  
 Josiah Quincy, Member of Congress, U. S.  
 John Rutledge, Charleston, S. C.  
 Gen. Jacob Read, Charleston, S. C.  
 Solomon Van Ransselaer, Adjutant Gen. Albany, N. Y.  
 Thomas M. Randolph, of Virginia,  
 David Ramsay, Charleston, S. C.  
 James Ricketts, of Elizabeth Town, N. Jersey,  
 Hezekiah Rogers, of War Department, Secretary pro tem. U. S. M. P. S.  
 K. Van Ranslaer, Member of Congress,  
 Gen. Ebenezer Stevens, N. York Artillery.  
 Louis Simond, of New York,  
 Caleb Strong, late Governor of Massachusetts,  
 Samuel Smith, Senator U. S.  
 Robert Smith, Secretary of Navy,  
 Gen. Arthur St. Clair, of Pennsylvania,  
 William Short, late Chargé des Affaires at Madrid,  
 Col. Daniel Stevens, of S. Carolina,  
 General Benjamin Smith, of Wilmington, N. Carolina,  
 John Saunders, Capt. of Artillery U. S. (Norfolk, Virginia)  
 General Thomas Sumter, Senator U. S.  
 Caleb Swan, Pay Master to the Army,  
 Foster Swift, of Taunton, Massachusetts,  
 James Sullivan, Governor of Massachusetts,  
 William L. Smith, of Charleston, S. Carolina, late Minister U. S. at Lisbon,  
 Amos Stoddart, Major of Artillerists, Fort Adams,  
 John Tayloe, Major of Cavalry, Washington, S. C.  
 Sylvanus Thayer, Lieutenant of Engineers,  
 Thomas Tillotson, of New York,  
 Colonel Joseph G. Totten, Lieut. of Engineers.  
 John Trumbull, of New York,  
 Thomas Truxton, Commodore in the Navy U. S.  
 Thomas Tingey, Port Commodore, Washington.  
 Thomas T. Tucker, Treasurer, U. S.  
 James Wilkinson, Brigadier General Commandant of Army U. S.  
 John B. Walback, Capt. of Artillery, Commanding Fort Constitution.  
 Samuel White, Senator U. S.  
 Bushrod Washington, Judge of Superior Court, U. S.  
 Colonel William Washington, Charleston, S. Carolina,  
 Samuel Webber, of Vermont,  
 Prentice Willard, Lieut. of Engineers,  
 Eleazer D. Wood, Lieut. of Engineers,  
 Alexander J. Williams, Cadet of Engineers,  
 Richard Wiley, Capt. Artillery, Commanding Fort Columbus,  
 Franklin Wharton, Lieut. Col. Commandant Marine Corps,  
 Henry J. Williams, Cadet Engineers,  
 John Williams, Professor, Cambridge.

On motion,

*Resolved*, That the thanks of this Society be given to the President for his address delivered this evening, and that the Secretary pro tem. be desired to publish the same in the National Intelligencer in this city, with a request that it may be printed in the other papers of the United States; and also separately, for the use of the members of this Society.

On motion,

*Resolved*, That the expence of the publication of the address, communications, &c. of the President be defrayed from the Funds of the Society.

Extract from the minutes,

HEZ. ROGERS, *Secretary pro tem.*

POWERS AND DUTIES OF THE DIFFERENT OFFICERS OF THE ARMY AT THE TIME OF JAMES I.\*

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INTRODUCTORY REMARKS AND EXTRACTS.

THE organization of the Anglo-Saxon armies was effected as follows: Every head of a family was required to assemble at the place of rendezvous all the members of his family liable to military service. Of these were formed:

1. *Tythings*, consisting of ten families each, and commanded by an officer called *Conductor*.

2. *Hundreds*, consisting of ten *tythings*, and commanded by the principal local magistrate, who, in his military capacity, was styled *Hundredary*.

3. *Trythings*, consisting of several hundreds, according to the population of the county, under the command of a *Trythingman*.

4. The collective trythings, or military force of the county, commanded by the *Heretoch*.

5. The collective military forces of all the counties—the army—under the supreme command of the King, or his deputy, the *Kyningshold*.

The hundredary, trythingman and heretoch were elected; the latter being generally of the nobility of the county, and selected on account of his peculiar fitness for the office. The hundredary was elected by the hundred at their public court, where they met armed; every member, as a token of obedience, touching the weapon of the hundredary. These courts were hence called *Wapentakes*. [Grose Mil. Antiq.]

“In time of peace the command of the force of the counties, respectively, reverted to the *heretoch*; whose power in all things

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\* This paper was recently copied from the Harleian MSS. in the British Museum, and has never before been published in this country.—EDITOR.

relating to the economy, conduct, and government of his contingent, was nearly unlimited; a power supposed by some to have exceeded the due boundary, as bearing too heavily on the prerogative of the crown, and certainly liable by abuse, of which it was susceptible, evidenced by more than one instance in our early annals, to be directed to the subversion of the kingly authority, and the interruption of the line of succession. The power of the *heretochs* is described, in the laws of *Edward the Confessor*, to have been so plenary and absolute, as to be bounded only by their own discretion, it being permitted to them to regulate the force of the county, '*pro ut eis visum fuerit, ad honorem coronae et utilitatem regni*;' 'as to them might seem best for the honor of the crown, and the service of the realm.'" [Samuel's Hist. account of the Brit. Army, etc., pp. 6 and 7.]

This system remained in force until the Norman conquest and the introduction of the feudal system.

"The feudal troops were either the persons who held lands *in capite*, that is, immediately of the crown, or their vassals and under-tenants, both of whom were obliged by their tenures to attend the king and their lords to the wars, at home or abroad, completely armed and mounted, for forty days in a year, or according to the value of the fees held by them.

"The *posse comitatus*, or power of the county, included every free man above the age of fifteen, and under that of sixty, and although the chief destination of this establishment was to preserve the peace under the command of the sheriff, they were also, in case of hostile invasions, called out to defend the county and repel the enemy. The *posse comitatus* differed from the feudal troops in this; they were only liable to be called out in case of internal commotions, or actual invasions, on which occasions, only they could legally be marched out of their respective counties, and in no case out of the kingdom; whereas the feudal troops were subject to foreign service at the king's pleasure. [Grose Mil. Antiq., Vol. I, pp. 8 and 9.]

"In ancient times, when an army was to be raised, either for foreign service, or to guard against invasions or domestic insurrections, the feudal tenants and the *posse comitatus* being assembled in their proper districts, they were inspected by certain provincial officers termed *arratores*, in English, arrayers; two or more, being trusty and experienced officers, were commonly appointed by the king's commission for each county. It was the

duty of these arrayers not only to inspect the soldiers, and see that they were able-bodied and fit for service, but also that they were properly armed, accoutred, and otherwise appointed, according to their station and the nature of their service. They were likewise to arrange both the cavalry and infantry into their proper bodies, equivalent to the present divisions of squads, troops, companies, and battalions." [Grose Mil. Antiq., Vol. I, p. 204.]

The smallest division of the cavalry was the *Constabulary*, commanded by an officer termed *Constable*. It probably consisted of about twenty-five or thirty men.

The next division was that under a banner, commanded by a *Banneret*, and consisted of a certain number of men-at-arms, each attended by two horsemen, amounting altogether to from 75 to 150 men.

"Knights might act as intermediate officers, between the constable and banneret, commanding two constabularies under their pennon. Father Daniel says, that in France the bannerets formerly commanded the different bodies of cavalry under the counts and dukes." [Grose I, 207.]

"The English Infantry, from the time of Edward I., and probably from that of the conquest, to the reign of Henry VII., was divided into thousands, hundreds, and twenties; answering to our regiments, companies and squads." [Grose I, 208.]

The armies were commanded by the *High Constable* and the *Earl Marshal*. Both of these officers were introduced into England by William the Conqueror. Besides the High Constable, other constables were sometimes appointed for the command of particular armies.

The High Constable was second only to the King, and in his absence exercised supreme command. The office became hereditary in England, but was forfeited to the Crown by the attainder of the Duke of Buckingham during the reign of Henry VIII., and was afterwards revived only for special purposes, which did not include military command. For this purpose the office of general, captain-general, or lieutenant-general had been substituted.

The Earl Marshal was next in command to the High Constable. This office also became hereditary, and still exists, although it has ceased to be a military office. As with Constables, Marshals were sometimes appointed to command particular armies, in addition to the Earl-Marshal of England.

The office of General was first introduced into England about the time of Henry VIII., probably when the office of High Constable was abolished, "After which we meet with the term captain-general of the horsemen, and captain-general of the footmen, in armies commanded by persons bearing only the title of General. The same army sometimes had a captain and lieutenant-general, and also a captain-general of the horsemen or foot. An instance of this occurs in the army sent to St. Quintius." [Grose.]

"The denomination of captain and lieutenant, applied to officers commanding small bodies of men, equivalent to our troops and companies, was scarcely introduced into our armies before the reign of Henry VII. and VIII., when we find them borne by the officers commanding the yeomen of the guard and the band of gentlemen pensioners, and the occasional representatives. We likewise read of captains and petty captains in acts of the 4th and 5th of Philip and Mary against desertion; probably the former meant a colonel, or one commanding a corps, band or regiment; the latter the captain of a company.

"The term regiment was not then in use, being in all likelihood borrowed from the French, whose bands were, according to Father Daniel, first formed into regiments in the year 1562. Sir James Turner, whose book styled *Pallas Armata*, was published A. D. 1683, says, the term regiment was not then an hundred years old." [Grose, *Mil. Antiq.* Vol. I., p. 207.]

In Ward's "*Animadversions of Warre*," published in 1639, it is said: "The Troopes are divided into *Colonies*, both the Infantry and the Cavallary, the chiefe whereof is the Colonell, the Lieutenant Colonell, the Sergeant Major; these are the chiefest in command in each Regiment." p. 157.

Grose places the introduction of "regiments" and "colonels" about the reign of Henry VIII. "The ranks of lieutenant-colonel, and sergeant-major, as the office now styled major was originally called, do not seem," he says, "to have been so soon adopted, for we find both the terms, regiments and colonels, in Fynes Morrison's *Account of Queen Elizabeth's Army in Ireland*, A. D. 1600, but do not meet with those of lieutenant-colonel, nor sergeant-major, as regimental officers." Nor did he meet with any earlier mention of them than that contained in Ward's *Animadversions of War*, which was published in 1639. There is, however, amongst the Harleian manuscripts, a collection of

copies of official papers, made by Ralph Starkey, in the time of James I. (therefore before 1625), which describes the duties of all the military officers then existing. A copy of this important paper has been obtained for publication, and is here given.

[J. B. F.]

[Harl. MS. 168, fo. 119, Brit. Mus]

## DIRECTIONS

### HOW FARRE

ANY MAN'S OFFICE IN AN ARMY DOTHE EXTENDE,  
AND WHAT

DUTIES THE OFFICER IS TO DOE.

### THE MARSHALL'S OFFICE.

1. First, he beinge the cheefe officere in the Army, and next both in place and authoritie to the Generall, he is both to be respected and obeyed thoroughout the Army, and such directions as he shall from the Generall deliver to the troopes are to be performed.

2. Secondlie, he is both to give direction and to receive accompte of all things that belonge to the Justice of the Army, and all proclamacons, orders and decrees that are made by the Generall are to be declared by him to the Marshall, and by him to the provost-marshall and other inferior officers.

3. Thirdlie, all orders for marshalinge, encampinge or imbattlinge, placinge of guardes or approchinge of places are to be delivered from the Generall to the Marshall and from him to the Serieant-Maior: Alsoe he is to goe before with ye Vantgarde in all marches and changinges of lodgings, and to appointe howe the quarter shalbe made, and Battaile entered, and soe the Battaile to stande in Armes till the reregarde enter, and the Reregarde to stand in Armes till the garde rounde about the quarter be placed.

4. Fourthlie, he is to receive the worde from the Generall and the Serieant-Mayor of the Army to come unto him for it, and all other Serieant-Mayors of Regimentes to come to the Serieant-Maior of the Army: Also, as the Serieant-Maior is to advertice the Marshall of all things yt are arrysse in the Guardes, and of anythinge that is extraordinarelie discovered; soe the Marshall is to be acquainte forthw<sup>th</sup> of it, if he be in quarter, and if not, to directe upon such occasion as he shall thinke good.

THE OFFICE OF THE MR. OF THE ORDINANCE.

1. First, he hath charge of all the Artillery, Armes, Munition, Instruments to worke, and all things elles that doe belonge to Artillery, beddes of Artillery, Trayning of Artillery and all other such like, that have and doe belonge to the office of the Mr. of the Ordinance or Generall of Artillerye.

2. Secondlie, he is absolutelie to comannde under the Generall all gentlemen of the Artillerie Comissaries and Clarkes of the Ordinance, Mr. Gunners, Cannoniers and all other officers belonginge to the Artillerie, Armorie, and Municon and all Ingeniers, Captaines of Myners, or Pioners and theire companyes, and all Armorers, Smythes, Carpenters, Wheelwrightes and all artificeres and attendantes on the Artillerie Armory or Municon.

3. Thirdlie, the Mr. of the Ordinance (after the place of Battery is chosen and sett out by the Generall to the Marshalles) is to observe comannde and directe the makinge of Cabines Beddes for the Artillery wayes or explanadoes for the bringinge or drawinge of the Artillery. And after he is once comannded by the Generall to beginne his Batterye he is to continue and directe it untill he shall have order from the Generall to cease. Also in a daie of fight he is to exercise his office and to comannde in it in like manner.

4. Fourthlie, all his Artillerie and Carriages belonginge to his office are to Marche in the safest place, and to have place before all the carriages of the Army, excepte some parte of them be drawne to some other place for necessitie of service.

5. Fifthlie, he is to make orders and pollecies for the well goverininge of all his inferior officers, artificere and all things belonginge to his office, w<sup>th</sup> w<sup>ch</sup> orders and pollecies he shall make the Generall acquainted, that they may bothe knowe from tyme to tyme the estate of the office of the Ordinance, and be sure that neither his Matie nor the service be defrauded.

6. Sixthlie, he is to deliver all kindes of Municons, Armes, and Instrumentes to worke w<sup>th</sup>all by warrant from the Generall to such as in the same warrante soe shalbe directed unto and shall issue none without warrant.

THE OFFICE OF THE CAMPE MAISTER.

1. Firste, the Camp Maister as a Councillor at Warres, and a publique officer of the Army, shalbe acquainted with the lodginge and in incamping of the Army, and to that ende he shall goe alonge w<sup>th</sup> the Marshall for his better assistance, where alsoe the Quarter Maister Generall shalbe present and shall see the grounde of the encampinge chosen, the lodgings sett out the place of Armes generallie for the Army and perticulerlie for the vanguard Battaile and reregarde and for every regiment appoynted, and the streetes or wayes to the places of Armes made passable and convenient, the sallies, trenches, Rampires, Bulwarkes, Mountes, the dich of the whole or any parte of the quarter made accordinge to the directions and all other thinges for the commoditie, ease, and safetie of the Army both made and maintained accordinge to the Generall or Marshall.

2. Secondlie, he shall keepe a list of the strength of every regiment in the Army and their sortes of Armes, w<sup>ch</sup> the Muster Maister at every review shall give unto him, to the ende that upon every occasion of drawinge out of men they may goe by turnes and one company be noe more harred out or have more imposed upon him than an other: And, therefore, he shall have authoritie upon the draininge out of any peeces of regimentes of companies to directe what men shalbe drawne out, and those men soe sett out by him shalbe delivered by the Colonells to the Serieant-Maior of the regimentes and by them carried to the Serieant-Maior of the Army.

#### OFFICE OF THE SERIEANT MAIORS.

1. First, though he be sett downe after divers officers of the Army and divers Colonells in precedencie and degree: yet he is a publique officer of the Army who hath to doe w<sup>th</sup> all the troupes, and is to be best acquainted w<sup>th</sup> the discipline and good generinge of the Army next to the Generalles and Marshall, and therefore he is to comannde the troupes in y<sup>e</sup> absence of the Generall and Marshall.

2. Secondlie, he is to receive from the Marshall all directions for the marchinge or imbattailinge of the troupes, and to give directions to the Serieant-Maiors of all Regimentes to w<sup>ch</sup> ende he must come and fetch his directions from the Marshalls and the Serieant-Maiors of Regimentes must fetch them from him, w<sup>th</sup> directions for marchinge and embatelling he is not onlie to receive and deliver, but also to see them executed; in execution whereof all colonelles and all capitaines must take knowledge from him of the directions and performe them accordinglie.

3. Thirdlie, he is to come to the Marshall for direction for all watches and guardes that are to be placed, and upon a change of Lodgings or remove, he is to marche w<sup>th</sup> the Marshall in the vantage (after he hathe seene the troupes settled in order of march) and to see the places appointed him by the Marshall, placing guardes upon the verie first arrivall of the troupes.

4. Ffourthlie, as the Marshall is to receive the worde from the Generall, soe the Serieant-Maior of the Army is to receive it from the Marshall, and to deliver it to the Serieant-Maiors of Regimentes or to send it every Regiment by the Corporall of the feilde.

5. Fiftelie, he, himselfe, at the beginninge of the night, after all the guardes are sett, is to visitt them and to appointe 3 Corporalles of the feilde that shall attend upon the vantage Battaile and reregarde, at what tyme they shall goe the rounde, and if he find anythinge amisse or anything extraordinarylie discovered either when he goeth himselfe or by his Corporalles, who are to give accompte unto him he shall advrtize the Marshall of it.

6. Sixtlie, in a daye of Battaile or any kind of fight, he is to come to the Marshall for directions, and to see those directions executed.

7. Seventhlie, he is to absolute comandement over the four Corporalles of the feilde who are to be his ministers and his mouth, as he is the mouth of the superior officers.

THE OFFICE OF QUARTER MR. GENERALL.

1. Ffirst, he is at all removes, and before the takinge of any lodgings to attend upon the Marshall, and to receive his directions in what grounde the Army shalbe lodged in, and howe the vantagegarde Battaile and reregarde shalbe distinguished.

2. Secondlie, havinge receaved the said directions, he shall in y<sup>e</sup> grounde soe sett out by the Marshalles, make the quarter for the generalles, the principall officers of the Army and theire traynes, and then for theire severall regimentes of the Army, and give the quarter of every regiment to the Quarter MR. of that regiment, and then the Quarter Maisters of the severall regimentes are to make quarter for every Companye and to deliver the Companye so made to the burro of every companye.

3. Thirdlie, he is to directe the Quarter MR. of every regimente that they keepe the same forme in makinge the quarter of everye regimente by his assignement that he hath done in the whole for the assignment of the Marshall and that proposition for proposition, all places of Armes, streetes, sallies and all thinges ells be answerable.

4. Ffourthlie, when he hath receaved his direction from the Marshall, and given his direction as before specified, he shall visitt every quarter and see whether it be made accordinglie.

THE OFFICE OF TRENCH MAISTER.

1. Ffirst, because as Quarter Maister he shalle knowe the grounde that is sett oute, he is to execute the office of a Trench Maister in the out workes of the quarter as he doth of Quarter Maister w<sup>th</sup>in, that is he must sett distances between the lodgings and the Trench or Rampire w<sup>th</sup> the bredth and depth of the ditch, be the quarter altogether intrenched or in parte as he shall receive directions from the Marshall and Campemaister and also the proportion of all Bulwarkes, flankes, mountes, and other workes that shalbe appoynted.

2. Secondlie, as it is shewed what is the dutie of the Trench Maister in incamping, so in marchinge he is tyed to this, that he doe directe the makinge of wayes or explanadoes for the passage of the troupes or for marchinge of the Artillerye or carryages accordinge as he shall receive directions from the Marshall, provided, that in makinge waye for the Artillery *he one* allonge w<sup>th</sup> him assigned by the Maister of the Ordinance for that purpose., and for the carryages that the carriage maister be also there w<sup>th</sup> him.

3. Thirdlie, in all approches he is to take charge of the trenches and the workes for w<sup>ch</sup> after he hath receaved direction from the Generall or Marshall he shall give directions to all those that doe worke, and see that the workes be carried in such sorte as they are appointed: in w<sup>ch</sup> service all that worke, whether they be Pionerrs or Souldiers, must obeye him.

THE OFFICE OF GENERALL, OR COMISSARIE GENERALL OF THE VICTUALLES.

1. Ffirst, he is to take charge of all the victualles prepared for the Army.

as well for the sea as land service, and to see himselfe or by his ministers the proportion of victualles allotted to every shippe, as well for souldiers as for maryners, to be caryed aborde accordinge as he shalbe directed by the Generall, and in the shippes soe bestowed as it may be best preserved.

2. Secondlie, all pursers stuardes, and all other that shall in any shippe have charge and oversight in victualles, shall upon the discovery of the extraordinarie wastinge, spoylinge, or miscarreinge of victualles, presentlie give notice to the Generall or Comissarie Generall of the victualles, that he may presentlie take order in it.

3. Thirdlie, wheresoever the Army shall lande and marche or lodge, all the victuaels founde in such place shalbe seized upon by him, and a proportion by him sett out for the present use of the troupes there lodged and the rest reserved as part of the generall store and of victualles, and to that ende he shall goe himselfe, or send his officers or clearkes to attend the Marshall when he goeth first to view the quarter.

4. Fourthlie, he shall keepe a list of all Bakers, Millers, Buchers in the Army, and all other that are to be used in ye provision of victualles to the ende he may sett them on worke as the service shall require.

5. Fiftelie, all instrumentes for grindinge, bakinge or for prepareinge, bestoreing, careinge or preservinge of victualles shalbe under his charge as he shall have authoritie to use and dispose of them for the publike service.

6. Sixtlie, yf any prices of victualles shalbe taken at sea, the Comissarie Generall or generall of the victualles shall both take an note or inventorie for it and appointe some officers of his to take charge of it.

7. Seventhlie, if any prayes be taken by lande, he shall likewise have a note or inventorie of it, and view it himselfe, he shall make the division as he shalbe directed by the Generall, or in his absence by the Marshall.

8. Eightlie, he shall issue no extraordinarie victualles but by warrant from the Generall, and shall give, from tyme to tyme, accompte unto him of any wast or miscarriage of victualles that shalbe in the Army by sea or lande.

#### THE OFFICE OF CARIAGE MAISTER.

1. Ffirst he is w<sup>th</sup> as much authoritie to marshall all the cariages of the Army as the Serieant-Maior is to marshall all the troupes.

2. Secondlie, he shall see the cariages of the municon first to be placed in the best and safest place next the cariages of the Generall and cheefe officers of the Army, the next by their turnes, but because the incomberances of carriage may often-tymes disorder the whole troupes, he shall receive his directions from the Serieant-Maior of the Army where his charge shall marche, though the particuler disposing and orderinge of the carryages be left to himselfe.

3. Thirdlie, he shall have 3 severall men or officers of his to attende upon the severall devidions of cariages as oftentimes the baggage of the vantage Battaile and reregarde sometimes upon the carriage of munition; the Generall and Cheefe officers' cariages or how lesse they shall in their order of marching be divided into severall bodies, and he shall have

some smythes, carpenters and whelewrightes attende upon everye severall division, his best order in marshallinge the cariages wilbe to observe the same course that the Serieant-Maior doth in marshallinge the Regiment the w<sup>ch</sup> by the provost of every Regiment, he may give notice to all them that goe w<sup>th</sup> the cariages.

4. Ffourthlie, this direction beinge given he shall oversee the whole order of marche of all the cariages, and shall make the provostes of the Regiments see the Bagage of the severall Regiments keepe the same order.

#### THE OFFICE OF MUSTER MAISTER.

1. Ffirst, he shall take a generall muster of all the Army before it be imbarqued, and keepe a perfecte liste of all the number of armes, a copie of w<sup>ch</sup> liste he shall deliver to either of the Generalles.

2. Secondlie, he shall make reviews as often as the generale, or, in his absence, the marshall, shall appointe, and alter his liste as he fyndes the troupes altered in strength, and shall keepe notice of the alteracons betwixt every muster, and of the causes of diminishinge the strengthe of the troupes, that is to saye what men are slayne in service, and what are dead in sickness, and what men are runne awaye or gone by passporte.

3. Thirdlie, he shall be respected and obeyed in the execution of his office, and no Colonell or Captain shall refuse to shewe their men when soever he shall require them.

#### THE OFFICE OF PROVOST-MARSHALL.

1. Ffirst, because in the nature of his office he is to execut all directions and comanndements that he shall receive from the Marshall he shalbe enjoyned to give his attendance upon the Marshall, it shalbe his offices to publish all proclamacons, orders and decrees of the Generall, and all thinges ells that are to be notified to the troupes as the Marshall shall command him he shall them publishe in the Generall's quarter, or in the Generall's place of service, if y<sup>e</sup> troupes be here assembled, and cause the provostes of everie Regimento to publishe them in the quarter of the same regimentes; he shall have the keepinge of all the prisoneres, in the Army, that is to saye he shall by himselfe and his owne servantes keepe the cheefe prisoneres, and shall directe all provostes of Regiments howe the prisoneres in their charge shalbe kepte.

2. Secondlie, he shall have thus farre forth comanndement over all the provostes of the Army as they shall give an accompte unto him of all the prisoners they have, and of the qualitie of their offences, or of the informacon against them as often as he shall directe, and he shall bring a note as well of his owne prisoners as of the reste once everie weeke to the Marshall.

3. Thirdlie, he shalbe attendant upon everie Courte daye on the Generall if he be there, or ells upon the Marshall and the Courte, and shall bringe the prisoneres that shall be called for safelie to the Courte w<sup>th</sup> such informacons and instructions as are to be brought in against them, and shall,

after they have been hearde and proceeded w<sup>th</sup>al, bringe them backe in safetie and soe keepe them till he have attended and knowne the further will of the Generall, or in his absence, of the Marshall. Also he shalbe bounde to have executioners, places of execution, and all thinges belonging to it whensoever or wherefore he shall be comanded by the Generall or Marshall, and he shall see the said executions soe comanded duly performed.

4. Ffourthlie, the Provost-Marshall have thus farre comandement over the victuallers of the Army that he shall assigne their quarter in everie Regiment, and shall appoynte what victualles are to attende everie Regimente. Alsoe he shall give order to the provostes of every regiment that they see noe victualles sould but at convenient houers, and that the prices of victualles be reasonable and such as shalbe appoynted.

5. Fiftlie, it is further incident to his office to have accompte brought unto him of all prayes of Cattaile and other victualles that are brought into the quarter, and that the same praye as soon as it comes to the quarter shalbe shewed to him and by him to the Generall or Comissarie-generall of the victualles because it may be knowne whether the prices be lawfull and how it ought to be divided.

6. Sixtelie, he shall by the provostes of every regiment and his servantes cause all intrayles of beastes that are killed in or neare the quarter, and all other garbage or filth to be buried, and in all thinges elles the quarter be kept sweete, and the places adjoyning cleane till such a convenient distance as he shall in his discretion sett downe. And that he himself as often as he can convenientlie shall visit the whole quarter, and shall cause the provostes of Regimentes and his owne servantes to visitt the severall partes of the quarters everye daye.

7. Seventhlie, he shall have all the fees as well in the prayes that are taken as in his service of oversight of victualles, and all thinges elles w<sup>ch</sup> doe properlie and usuallie belong to the Provost-Marshall of the Army.

#### THE OFFICE OF THE 4 CORPORALLS OF THE FEILD.

1. First, because they are to be the mouth and messengers of the Serieant-Maior of the Army of all directions w<sup>ch</sup> he receaves from the Marshall, they shall give their attendance upon the said Serieant-Maior, and both carrye such direction as he doth deliver them and see them performed.

2. Secondlie, as three of them are to be assigned by the Serieant-Maior, one to the vantgard and another to the Battaile and the third to the reregard soe in marcheinge everie one of those 3 shall attend upon their severall divisions, and shall, in the absence of the Serieant-Maior, see the order of the marshallinge or imbattellinge observed, also every of those 3 Corporalls of the feilde soe assigned shalbe at the comandement of him that companies that devision to be sent to the generalls marshall or Serieant-Maior, or to doe anythinge els that belongeth to the service.

3. Thirdlie, all the 4 Corporalls of the feilde shall lodge in the Serieant-Maior's quarter, and those 3 that shall attende upon the vantgarde Battaile

and Reregarde shall see the roundes and visitt the guardes every night at such an hower as the Serieant-Maior assignes them, and as often eithere by night or by daye as he shall directe them.

4. Ffourthlie, if any of those 3 Corporalls of the feild shall finde any lacke of powder or other munition in the vantgarde Battaile or reregarde, either in March, when the Troops are lodged, or during any fight, he shall advertize the Serieant-Maior of the Army of the said lackes, and then by his direction shall goe w<sup>th</sup> an officer of everie Regiment in that divisien to the Maister of the Ordinance, or in his absence, of the Lieutenant of the Ordinance.

5. Ffiftlie, because sometimes when the word is to be sent to all the quarters, the Sergeant-Maior of everie Regiment cannot convenientlie come to the Sergeant-Maior of the Army for it, the Corporalls of the feild shall attend upon the Sergeant-Maior of the Army to carey the worde unto the severall quarters if he shall soe comande them.

#### THE OFFICE OF COLLONELL.

1. Everye Collonell is to comande all his officers, Captaines, or others, and all souldiers men of warre, of what degree soever that doe putt themselves, or by a superior Authoritie putt and aranged under his regiment, and all such as are to respecte his comandements and obeye him as fully as they would doe the Cheefe Comannders.

2. Also he shall see all orders, comandements, and directions w<sup>ch</sup> are delivered him by the publique officers of the Army for guardes, marches, lodginge or anything ells for matters of Justice or for orderinge of the troopes and furtherance of the service, duly executed and performed w<sup>th</sup>in his owne troupes.

3. Further if he himselfe doe finde any mutinee or discontented humors, tendinge to mutinee or extreame outrage or disorder, or shall by any of his Captaines, officers or souldiers be informed of any such he shall forthw<sup>th</sup> advertize the Generall. And if he finde any other faulte negligence or swarlinge from either the directions given or the polley of the Army sett downe, he shall straight waie acquainte them by whome such direction did or was to come unto him or some other superior officer if he cannot convenientlie acquaint him w<sup>th</sup> it, and shall produce the partie so offending, w<sup>th</sup> the witnesses and proofes, y<sup>t</sup> order may be given forthw<sup>th</sup> and justice done. And if he faile to give this informacon of anything he knowes or heares of, he shalbe thought deeplie faultie, or if any such thinge passe w<sup>th</sup>out his knowledge he shall be thought of worse governmente than were fitt for a man of his place and charge.

4. Alsoe in lodginge, everie Collonell is to lodge as neare as can be in the middest of the quarter assigned for the regiment, because soe he may best give directions to the whole.

5. In marches the Collonell shalbe at the ende of his troopes that is nearest the enemy, (that is to saye) in the head of his regiment going towards an enemy, and in the rerewarde cominge from one, and shall not goe from thence except it be for the orderinge of his troopes or some extraordinarie occasion.

6. Alsoe once every weeke the Collonell shall call together all his capitaines and shall enquire of all officers in his regiment and examine the nature and qualitie of such offences to prepare the causes for a more shorte and easie hearinge in a Marshall Courte.

7. Lastlie, all the Colonells shall repaire to a Marshall Courte as often as they shalbe warned, and shalbe assistant to the lorde marshall in all causes that shalbe there in question, or belong to the justice of the Army.

#### THE OFFICE OF LIEUTENANT COLONELL.

1. The Lieutenant Collonell when his Collonell is present to assist and obey him in seeing all the directions that are delivered by any publique officer, or such as shalbe within the authoritie of a Collonell himselfe to commande, and in the absence of his Colonell he shall have the same authoritie that ye Collonell hath himselfe.

2. He is to lodge ever on the right hande of his Colonells lodginge as nere the ende of the quarter as convenientlie may be.

3. In marchinge or impattelling when soever the Collonell is in the head of the Regiment he shalbe in the rerewarde of all yt Regiment. And when his Collonell shalbe in the rerewarde he shalbe in the head.

#### THE OFFICE OF SERIEANT MAIOR.

1. He shall, in the presence of his Collonell or the Lieutenant Collonell, be an assistant to them or either of them in seeinge all orders and directions executed and performed, and in the absence of them both, to have the same authoritie that the Collonell himselfe shall have.

2. He shall lodge in the leafte hande of his Collonell, as neare the ende of his quarter as convenientlie may be.

3. In marchinge or embatelling he shall keepe as near the midst of his regiment as he cann, but on one side, and soe as he may best over looke the order of their marche or embatailinge.

4. He shall come to the Serieant Maior of the Army to receive ye worde from him if there be no extraordinarie cause to hinder him, and when he hath received the worde from the said Serieant Maior generall, he shall deliver it over to the serieantes of every company in that regiment wch are to come to him for it.

5. As he doth receive directions for marchinge, embattallinge and placinge of guardes from the Serieant Maior of the Army, soe he is to deliver them over to the Capitaines of that Regiment, and to all those to whom it doth apertayne, and to see them executed.

6. Everie night he is to visitt all the guardes of the Regimente and to keepe accompte of the turnes of the marches, watches and going to the warres or sending troopes upon service, to the ende both the laboure and the honoure may be equally divided.

#### THE OFFICE OF QUARTER MR. OF A REGIMENT.

He shall in all changes of lodginge attende the Quarter Mr. generall, and take the place by him assigned for the quartering of the Regiment in such

forme as the quarter maister generall shall directe him and then he shall appointe lodginge to the Collonell and the officers accordinge to the places they are to take in the Regiment, and to the of every company he shall not onlie the heighth, the bredth and length of his quarter, but also the distances of the Trench, if it be an out quarter, and the distance of one company from another, and where the Company's shalbe in townes or villages, he is likewise to keep proportion and followe the direction of the Quarter Maister generall, he shall of that regimete in the hindermoste part of the quarter, such a distance as y<sup>e</sup> quarter m<sup>r</sup>. generall shall appointe.

His place is to lodge in the backside of the quarter behinde the lodgings of the Liuetenant Collonell.

#### THE OFFICE OF A PROVOST OF A REGIMENT.

1. He shall see all the proclamacons, orders and decrees that shalbe published by the provost marshall of the Army likewise published in the Regiment whereof he is provost.

2. Alsoe he shall safelie keepe all prisoners comitted to him, and once a weeke give a note to the provost marshall of the Army of all the prisoners w<sup>th</sup>in his charge, and of the causes of their comitment.

3. Further, he shall oversee the victuallers of the Army that they shall neither at unreasonable prices nor unlawfull hours sell theire victualles, and shall, on the other side, be watchfull that no wrong be done unto them, and if any be, that forthw<sup>th</sup> the party doing wronge be broughte before some officer that hath authoritie to yelde addresse, and to that ende he shall goe about the quarter once everie forenoone, once in the afternoone and once in the dead of the night, if it may be convenientlie performed.

4. Also he shall have an accompt given him every night by the Victuallers what victualles are in the quarter, and he shall carye or send those notes to the provost marshall of the Army.

5. When praies or booties are brought in, after the provost marshall hath devided the said bootie or praye to every Regiment, y<sup>e</sup> provost of the Regiment shall divide them to the Companies.

6. He is to see all the quarters kepte swete and cleane, all garbage and filth burned, and nothinge to annoy the quarter to be suffered w<sup>th</sup>in such a distance as shalbe appointyd him by the provost marshall of the Army.

7. He shall lodge in the midst of the Victuallers of that Regiment.

8. He shall come to the Cariage Maister for direction where the Baggage of that Regiment shall march, when they shall assemble, and what waies they shall goe, w<sup>ch</sup> directions he shall see performed, and after he hath given the first place to the Colonells baggage he shall marshall the rest by turnes as the Companies do marche.

9. Also he shall see the waies made for the carriages, and the caryage accompanied w<sup>th</sup> men sufficient and w<sup>th</sup> instrumentes to helpe or make any thinge that is amisse in the wayes or carriages, and if any cariage be unable to goe he shall provide that it be no stoppe or hinderance to the rest.

## THE OFFICE OF A CAPTAYNE.

1. He hath proportionable the same commandement over his company that a colonell hath over his Regiment, and so all his officers and souldiers are to obey him.

2. When he receaveth his company and his armes he is to choose his men, and to soart them to their Armes as he shall thinke fitt, provided that he makes his ablest men Armed men and musketiers; if he be to arme them himselfe he shall make one-halfe of his company armed men and the other halfe equally devided into musketiers and harquebusheers.

3. He shall choose his officers such as either have had the like place heretofore, and are of experience and good government, or such as have made themselves knowne to be fitt for the like.

4. He shall devide his company into 3 Corporallships. He shall care and laboure to teech all his souldiers the cariage and use of their armes, to keepe their orders in marchinge or inbattelinge, to understand all manner of mocons and the soundes of the Drumme, and to this ende he shall have usual tymes of exercise w<sup>ch</sup> shalbe once a daye at least, till his men be perfecte.

5. In Marchinge w<sup>th</sup> his company alone, he shalbe in the heade of his company goinge towards an enemy, and in the rerewardes coming from one.

6. In marchinge w<sup>th</sup> the regiment, he is to receive his directions from the Serieant-Maior of the Regiment, and to marshall his severall sortes of weapons as he shalbe by them directed, and shall to every one of the devisions of his company appointe such an officer as the serieant maiore of the Regiment shall assigne.

7. In imbattailinge he is to order his troupes as the Serieant Maior of the Regiment shall directe, and to be himselfe where the Colonell or superior officer shall comannde him.

8. In lodginge he shall take his quarter assigned according to his degree and place in the Regiment, and shall see it built and ordered according to the directions his superioure hath received, and that there be devisions both of the quarter into squadrons and of the squadrons into Camaradoes.

9. He shall have the quarter kept swete of helthfulnes and quiett for order sake, and speciallie in the nighte.

10. Yf his whole company be appoynted to marche, he shall drawe out his company and stande in Armes redy to marche before his quarter, attending the direction of the Serieant-Maior of the Regiment for the placeinge of his corpes de garde, settinge his sentinells and sendinge forth his rounders, and to see those directions performed, and is not to abandon his garde till he be returned, and whatsoever is discovered or brought to the corpes de garde where he is, shall by him be sent to the Captayne of the watch, and he shall make good his garde yf he be not by a superior officer comannded to retire.

11. Yf he knowe or heare any mutiney, discontented humor tending to mutiny, outrage or any disorder comitted by any of his Company, or w<sup>thin</sup> his quarter, he shall forthw<sup>th</sup> advertise his Colonell of it, or yf he be not in

the waye, some publique officer of the Army, and shall arrest and bringe forth the partie offendinge, and such wnesse and proofes as are to be produced, of wch if he faile and knowe it he shalbe held verye faultie, and if such thinges escape him he shalbe held unworthie of his place.

12. He shall see on the otherside those of his Company that doe better than their fellows, advanced to place and encouraged accordinglye, and to all he shall doe right, both in their paye and in all things ells that are due unto them, and shall, as farre as in him lyeth, take care for the comforte and preserving of his sicke and hurte men.

13. In matter of service he shall doe all that is comannded him by any superior officer that hath authoritie, in the beste soarte he can without either exceedinge his commission or doing lesse.

14. Lastlie, when he is alone wth his Company he shalbe very vigilant and careful, both in marches and lodgings, and if he be put to any extremitie, yet he muste looke to make an accompte and therefore he shall doe his utermoste both by judgment and valoure to free his troopes.

#### THE OFFICE OF A LIEUTENANT OF A COMPANY.

1. He shall, when the Captayne is present, be assistinge to his Captayne in seeing all directions performed that are comannded by a superior officer, or all such as his Captayne hath authoritie to comande, and in the absence of the Captayne he shall have the same authoritie the Captayne hath.

2. In march, if there be no company but his owne, he shalbe at one ende of his troope when the Captayne is at another ende, and if the Company marche wth the regiment he shall have such place as a superior officer as have authoritie shall assigne.

3. In his lodging he shalbe placed on the right hande of his Captayne as neare the end of the quarter as may be convenientlie. And shall, in all services, and at all tymes helpe to keepe the souldiers in discipline and obedience, and shall performe all things comannded him, or upon occasion necessarie to be done by him wth valour and judgment.

#### THE OFFICE OF AN ENSIGNE.

1. He shall, when his Captayne or Lieutenant are present, be assistant to them, or either of them, and in their absence he hath the same authoritie wch the Captayne hath.

2. In his marche he is to carye the Ensigne, and take such place as shalbe assigned unto him, and if his company be alone he shall, either upon enteringe his quarter, goinge out of his quarter, goinge upon the garde or upon sight of an enemy, Carrie his ensigne advanced and flyinge, and if he marche wth the regiment, he and all the other Ensignes of the Regiment shall doe as Ensigne Colonell doth.

3. In fight he shall ever Carrie his Ensigne advanced and flienge without offeringe to use it in any kinde of offence, being the signe of the company to gather by, and therefore to be preserved, for wch cause, for his defence he may use his sword.

4. Yf he marche <sup>with</sup> other ensignes he shall take such place as shalbe assigned him.

5. The Ensigne shall never turne his face out of his order scarce for any danger nor forsake his ensigne in service upon payne of death, whensoever the drumme shall beat for gatheringe the troopes together, he shalbe in the place and shall see the ensigne well guarded, and be readie to marche or do anythinge for the service.

#### THE OFFICE OF A SERIEANT OF A COMPANY.

1. If all the three before named officers be out of the waye by any accident, then the eldest Serieant is to camann the Company as next in place.

2. In assemblinge the Company he shall sett every man in his place, and if any be missinge he shall seeke them out and have power to correct them, and if any be defective and cannot be founde, he is to acquinte his captayne or officer <sup>with</sup> it.

3. When the companie is assembled and sett in order of marche observed, and to make the places of serieantes more certaine, the eldest Serieant shall marche on the right side and take care from the Ensigne forward, and the youngest on the left side and take care from the Ensigne backwarde.

4. Though he is to understand the use of all armes usually carried, and all things that belonge to a souldier, yet he is speciallie to make himselfe able to directe and leade shott, because if his company be alone, and have any feight, he is by custome to conduct the shott; In <sup>wh</sup> case he is to followe the directions given him by his Captayne, or in the absence of his Captayne, of his superiore officer.

5. And for more particular directions how to leade his shott after he hath brought them up to that grounde and in that number and order that his captayne or his superior officer hath directed him, he shall make every man come up close to him, and he shall see that he take his levill and discharge to good purpose, and he shall see the shott keepe theire order as well in goinge on, as retiring of, if he be loyned <sup>with</sup> theire troopes he shall followe the directions of him that Commandes the troopes, and carefullie look to the orders of that portion <sup>wh</sup> he is assigned to attende.

6. The eldest Serieant shall lodge in the skerte of the quarter right behinde the Captayne, and the other Serieant in the same sorte beyond the Lieutenant, and in the quarter they are bothe to visitt the souldiers' lodginge, and to see them all orderlie and quiett.

7. He is to fetch the worde from the Sergeant Maior of the Regimente and to deliver it to his Captayne, Lieutenant and Ensigne and to the Corporall that is of the watch, and if the whole company watch, he is <sup>to</sup> attende and to see the places where the sentinelles are putt out, and to visite them all yf they watche by quaderons then he shall leade quaderons and bringe them to theire garde, where he shall attend upon any extraordinarie occasion by the appointment of the Captayne of the watch of any extraordinarie discovery or accident of importance.

8. He shall deliver such munitons either of victuales or of warre to the corporall of the Company as he shall receive and fetch from the Serieant Maior as he shall receive and fetch from the Serieant Maior of the Regiment.\*

THE OFFICE OF A CORPORALL OF A COMPANY.

1. Though it verie seldom happeneth that he hath charge of the company, yet if such an accident shall fall out that all the superior officers of the company were absent, then the comannde doth belonge to him.

2. To this place belonge properlie the comannde of one squadron of the company w<sup>ch</sup> he is to devide into Camaradoes or fellowship, to see all w<sup>th</sup>in that squaderon well exercised in their armes to have them and to weare them souldierlike, to deliver them munitons of victuales or for Armes, to governe the watch, to devide the labour equallie of his squaderon, either in watch, worke or service, and to care in everie respect that they doe the duties of good souldiers.

3. When the drumme beateth to the gatheringe of the Company's the corporalles are immediatlye to be in readiness themselves, and to call together their squadron w<sup>ch</sup> shall repaire to their Ensigne, and if any of their squaderons be wantinge w<sup>th</sup>out leave, they shall give notice thereof to the Captayne, and shall prosecute the said absence to the punishinge of them.

4. He shall have at the least a third parte of a company under his squaderon w<sup>ch</sup> being devided into fyles he shall himselfe be leader of the cheefe fyle, and is w<sup>th</sup> the same alwaies to take place on the ryght hande of the squaderon, w<sup>ch</sup> shalbe compounded of one of the three sortes of Armes now in use, pikes, musketes or harquebuzes.

5. He shall in case of any defaulte by absence leave the place voide and unsupplied, unless the same fall out to be the leader, or last man of a file, w<sup>ch</sup> places shall ever be supplied by the next.

6. In marchinge or fightinge the corporalles of a company have no comande but of the file that eiche of them leades, they are to see theire openinge of theire files or Rankes or to double the same to followe the sound of the drumme, and to observe everie other moton that shalbe comannded by the cheefe officers, alwaies provided that he start not out of his place nor use any comannde of himselfe.

7. When the squadron is to watch he shall, at the sound of the drume, assemble them and repaire to the Ensigne, and shall see them fully furnished of theire Armes, powder, match, shott and all thinges ells that shalbe necessarie for the Armes they cary, whereof he shall be supplied by the sergeant of the Company.

8. He is to be lead by his serieant to the place of his watch, and from him to receive the worde and directions in what manner and where he shall place his sentinells, as well by daye as in the night, which he is to see performed.

9. His sentinells beinge placed, he is to lett not passe his guard w<sup>th</sup>out

\* The repetition in this paragraph occurs in the original manuscript.

the worde, unlesse it be the Captayne of the watch or ye Serieant Maior, to whom after he knoweth of them he is to deliver the worde the first rounde.

10. He shall soe devide his sentinelles that everie one shall doe alike, he shall at the call of the sentinelle goe to him, he shall then change at due tymes, and shall nowe and then visitt them, unlooked for. He must warne his sentinelles not to give any false alarme, but w<sup>th</sup> as small voyce as is possible to advertise his corporall, who upon any extraordinarie occasion shall put his squadron in Armes, and give notice of the danger discovered to the next guardes and the captaynes of the watch.

11. He shall make good the place of his garde till he be called from thence, and not suffer any of the squadron to leave the same till he be releved, and he shall fulfill on his garde all comandementes that shalbe published for the enteringe or goinge forth of any soulders.

12. Att the cominge of his cheefe he shall put his squadron in Armes stand readie to receive them, and when his sentinelles are releived marche to his quarter.

13. If during the time of watch any of his squadron shall have offended he is to comitt them and to acquinte the Captayne or cheefe officers therew<sup>th</sup>.

14. Yf by occasion of the Companyes remove he be drawne from his garde the 24 howeres be expired, and that the Company lodge againe w<sup>th</sup>in the same tyme, then shall the said Corporall w<sup>th</sup> his squadron be in a redines to watche out the residue of the tyme in such place as shalbe appointed.

15. Lastlie, as the Corporall is next in degree to the Serieant, so in the behavinge himselfe well he may pretend to the place of a serieant when by any accident it may be voyde.

#### THE OFFICE OF A LAWSPESADO.

1. Next to the Corporall is the Lawspesado, who in the absense of the Corporall is in everie respecte to doe his office, his owne proper place is to leade the left file of the squadron and to have of his owne and the files adjoyninge the same care for observinge of their orders as is specified in the Corporall's office.

#### THE OFFICE OF A DRUMME.

1. There ought to be two Drummers at the least in a company, both perfecte in everie necessarie sound thereof, w<sup>ch</sup> by turnes are to doe all the services belonginge to their place, and therefore in feild or garrison one of them is to give attendance in the quarter though the company were for that tyme freed of any dutie.

2. The drumme havinge warninge to beate for the gatheringe of the company shall goe soundinge from one ende of the quarter to the other twice, and then shall repaire to his ensigne's lodginge.

3. Whille the companie marcheth one of them shall ever sound, and by turnes ease eiche other.

4. When the companye shalbe ioyned w<sup>th</sup> others the drummes shall take place by the appointmente of the Drumme Maiore, and shall sounde the same pointe and observe the same tyme that the drumme maior doth, that is next to the colonell or cheefe officer.

5. It is the office of a drumme when any of the company be taken prisoners to enquire after him, and carrie theire ransome, w<sup>ch</sup> he may bouldlie doe after he hath receaved a passporte from the generall or cheefe Commander of the Army or garrison where the Company is, and when he shall come neere any place of the enemyes, he is to stande theire and not to approach neere till he be by some of the enemye fetched in; he is onlie to make his errand knowne and not to discover any thing of the state of the place from whence he was sent w<sup>ch</sup> may be prejudiciall to it.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

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FORT DOUGLAS, UTAH,  
*July 25, 1888.*

EDITOR JOURNAL:

**A**N officer of the Navy, in view of certain references to armed cars, in an article by myself recently published in the JOURNAL, calls my attention to a car fitted up by Lieut. W. W. Kimball, U. S. Navy, on the Isthmus, in 1884, and thus described by the latter in "Papers on Naval Operations during the year ending July, 1885:

"There were two flat cars fitted up as follows: Stanchions standing 44 inches above the floor of the car were firmly wedged in the sockets, and inside them was placed one-half inch steel boiler plates 42 inches wide. The bottom edges of the plates were held in place by cleats running the length of the cars, and the top edges by iron clips depending from bolts passed through the heads of the stanchions in the two inches of head that projected above the plate. The clips were held hard against the plates by nuts upon the bolts. The ends of the car were too wide for the steel plate at hand, and so two thicknesses of one-fourth inch iron were used there.

"Amidships of the car on both sides were spaces without shields, wide enough to admit a Gatling or 12-pounder S. B. howitzer field-carriage by 'cutting' the wheels back and forth. The spaces were left as embrasures for the 12-pounder S. B. guns, and for openings through which to disembark either of the field-pieces of the armament. A plate was provided and fitted with clips for use as a port shutter on the disengaged side, and eye-bolts were fitted for making fast the breeching, to keep the guns from recoiling too violently against the shutter, or from going overboard if the rear embrasure were left open. At each end of the car were platforms 10 inches high, 5 feet in fore-and-aft dimensions, and the width of the car inside the shield, one of which was occupied by the short Gatling on field-carriage, and the other served as a base into which to frame and brace the Hotchkiss cannon standard. These platforms were built in order to lift the Gatling and Hotchkiss high enough to fire in barbette. Thus all three guns could be brought to bear abeam, while the Hotchkiss and the Gatling gave fire ahead and astern. So the stanchions were spiked, three uprights carrying a roof covered with waterproof felt. A wire was stretched around under the eaves, and awning curtains bent, so that rain and smoke could be kept out. By paying a little attention to stowage, a car so fitted was found to be commodious enough to comfortably take the armament with full supply of ammunition, the crew of thirty men all told, with arms and equipments, two days' rations and water, and still leave room enough to work the guns and deliver a small amount of rifle fire."

Such a car appears to answer admirably the requirements of railroad riot duty. It possesses the advantage of being comfortable.

Respectfully,

RICHARD W. YOUNG, 2d Lieut., 5th Art'y.

## REVIEWS.

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### THE MILITARY CAREER OF GEN. GEORGE IZARD.\*

IN reading this interesting sketch, the reader is struck with the fact that even in the early days of the Republic merit did not always count, and men with the sure foundation of a good professional education were as much creatures of circumstances as they are in these modern days. Great generals as were Grant and Sheridan, they certainly did not elevate the Art of War, and so in 1812 Gen. Izard stood almost alone among the American Generals as one with the solid groundwork of a first-class military education for his time, and yet was denied the credit due him for preventing disasters that a dozen Lundy Lanes would not have made up for. There is perhaps more skill needed in the Art of War in *preventing* an enemy from gaining his ends than in gaining a victory over him. To military students the life of Gen. Izard is especially interesting, as it proves that the main principles of the Art of War, when carried out intelligently, are as sure and unaltering as the Pole Star. We are able also to understand more clearly than we gather from history, the many disadvantages under which our forces labored in the War of 1812-14; and, indeed, the wonder is that the British did not do better than they did. The sketch is well written, and conclusively proves that Gen. Izard has been put in a mistaken position by the historian, and instead of being held responsible for the inglorious endings of the campaigns of the Northern frontier, he should be given the credit due him for saving the troops from capture and annihilation, while he himself was hampered by close and unprofessional orders from the War Department, and ambitious wranglings among subordinates.

W. R. HAMILTON.

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\* *The Magazine of American History.*

## FOR REVIEW.

*The Bofors Steel Cast Guns.* By O. E. Michaelis, Ph.D., Captain of Ordnance, U. S. Army. A paper read before the American Institute of Mining Engineers at the Boston Meeting, February, 1888.

*Krupp and De Bange.* By E. Monthaye, Captain in the Belgian General Staff. Translated with an Appendix by O. E. Michaelis, Ph.D., Captain of Ordnance, U. S. Army. (New York, 1888.)

*Report of a Commissary of Subsistence, 1861-65.* By H. C. Symonds, formerly Major and C. S. U. S. Army.

*Alfred Krupp. A Sketch of his Life and Work. After the German of Victor Niemeyer.* By K. W. and O. E. Michaelis, to which is added, *A Visit to the Krupp Works at Essen.* From the French of Capt. E. Monthaye. Translated by O. E. Michaelis, U. S. Army. (New York.) Thomas Prosser & Son, 1888.

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## OUR EXCHANGES.

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*The Boston Pilot.* To date.

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- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <p style="text-align: center;">(2 years.)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. ABBOT, H. L., Col. Corps Engineers, B-G.</li> <li>3. COOK, G. H., Captain A. Q. M.</li> <li>2. HEGER, A., Lieut.-Col. A. M. P.</li> <li>4. CURTIS, H. P., Lt.-Col. D. J. A. G.</li> <li>5. MORDECAI, A., Lieut.-Col. Ordnance Dept.</li> <li>6. LODGE, R., Lieut.-Col. 5th Artillery.</li> </ol> | <p style="text-align: center;">(4 years.)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>7. BREWERTON, H. F., Captain 5th Artillery.</li> <li>8. VIELE, E. L., Brig.-Gen. (late) U. S. Vols.</li> <li>9. HAMILTON, JOHN, Colonel U. S. A.</li> <li>10. JACKSON, R. H., Major 5th Art., B-G.</li> <li>11. RANDOLPH, W. F., Major 3d Art., M.</li> <li>12. BLISS, T. H., 1st Lieut. 1st Artillery.</li> </ol> |
|--|---|
- (6 years.)
13. SUTHERLAND, C., Colonel Medical Department.
  14. TOMPKINS, C. H., Colonel A. Q. M. G., B. G.
  15. WEBB, A. S., Bvt. Major-General, (late) U. S. A.
  16. COPPINGER, J. J., Lieut.-Col. 18th Infantry. Col.
  17. WHIFFLE, W. D., Colonel A. G. D., M. G.

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### *Publication Committee.*

Generals ABBOT, RODENBOUGH, Colonels MORDECAI and HEGER, and Captain BREWERTON.

### *Committee on Library and Museum.*

Generals TOMPKINS, JONES and Lieut. VODGES.

### *Memorandum.*

The Military Service Institution has published the thirty-sixth number of its *Journal of Transactions*: containing the Prize Essays and other Papers submitted to the Institution; an account of its Origin and Progress, and a Catalogue of the Museum. It offers a Gold Medal and Life Membership annually, for the best Essay on a given theme. The War Department has authorized the occupation of commodious rooms on Governor's Island for its Library and Museum, and has ordered the Quartermaster's Department to transport, without expense to the Institution, contributions of books, trophies, or curious relics. The Institution corresponds and exchanges publications with the principal military societies at home and abroad.

### *Membership and Dues.*

(1) "All Officers of the Army and Professors of the Military Academy shall be entitled to Membership *without ballot* upon payment of the Entrance Fee."

(2) "Ex-Officers of the Regular Army, in good standing and honorable record, shall be eligible to full Membership of the Institution, *by ballot* of the Executive Council."

(3) "Officers of the U. S. Navy and Marine Corps shall be entitled to Membership of the Institution, *without ballot*, upon payment of the Entrance Fee, but shall not be entitled to vote nor be eligible to office."

(4) "All persons not mentioned in the preceding sections, of honorable record and good standing, shall be eligible to *Associate Membership* by a *confirmative vote of two-thirds* of the members of the Executive Council present at any meeting, *provided*, however, that the number of these Associate Members shall be limited to two hundred. Associate Members shall be entitled to all the benefits of the Institution, including a share in its public discussions; but no Associate Member shall be entitled to vote or be eligible to office."

Membership dates from the first day of the calendar year in which the "application" is made, unless such application is made after October 1st, when the membership dates from the first day of the next calendar year.

*All persons eligible for Membership* are urged to join at once, and are asked to recruit for an Institution which has the Military interests of the country at heart.

"An Entrance Fee of Five Dollars (\$5) shall be paid by each Member and Associate Member on joining the Institution, which sum shall be in lieu of the dues for the first year of membership, and on the first day of each calendar year, thereafter, a sum of not less than Two Dollars (\$2) shall be paid as *annual dues*. *Annual dues* commence on January 1st in each year, and are paid in advance.



## PRIZE ESSAY—1888.

I.—The following Resolution of Council is published for the information of all concerned :

*Resolved*, That a Prize of a Gold Medal of suitable value, together with a Certificate of Life Membership, be offered, annually by THE MILITARY SERVICE INSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES for the best essay on a military topic of current interest ; the subject to be selected by the Executive Council and the Prize awarded under the following conditions :

1. Competition to be open to all persons eligible to membership.\*
2. Each competitor shall send three copies of his Essay in a sealed envelope to the Secretary *on or before September 1, 1889*. The Essay must be strictly anonymous, but the author shall adopt some *nom de plume* and sign the same to the Essay, followed by a figure corresponding with the number of pages of MS.; a sealed envelope bearing the *nom de plume* on the outside, and enclosing full name and address, should accompany the Essay. This envelope to be opened in the presence of the Council after the decision of the Board of Award has been received.
3. The prize shall be awarded upon the recommendation of a Board consisting of three suitable persons chosen by the Executive Council, who will be requested to designate the Essay deemed worthy of the prize ; and also in their order of merit those deserving of honorable mention.
4. The successful Essay shall be published in the Journal of the Institution and the Essays deemed worthy of honorable mention, shall be read before the Institution, or, published, at the discretion of the Council.
5. Essays must not exceed twenty thousand words, or fifty pages of the size and style of the Journal (exclusive of tables).

II.—The Subject selected by the Council for the Prize Essay of 1888, is

*"THE DANGER TO THE COUNTRY FROM THE  
LACK OF PREPARATION FOR WAR."*

III.—The gentlemen chosen by the Council to constitute the Board of Award for 1888 are :

HON. JOHN BIGELOW,  
REAR-ADMIRAL S. B. LUCE, U. S. N.  
GENERAL JOSEPH WHEELER, M. C.

THEO. F. RODENBOUGH, *Secretary*.

GOVERNOR'S ISLAND.

\* "All officers of the Army and Professors at the Military Academy shall be entitled to membership, *without ballot*, upon payment of the entrance fee. Ex-officers of the Regular Army of good standing and honorable record shall be eligible to full membership of the Institution *by ballot* of the Executive Council.

"Officers of the United States Navy and Marine Corps shall be entitled to membership of the Institution *without ballot*, upon payment of the entrance fee, but shall not be entitled to vote, nor be eligible to office.

"All persons not mentioned in the preceding sections, of honorable record and good standing, shall be eligible to Associate Membership *by a confirmative vote* of two-thirds of the members of the Executive Council present at any meeting, *provided*, however, that the number of these Associate Members shall be limited to two hundred. Associate Members shall be entitled to all the benefits of the Institution, including a share in its public discussions, but no Associate Member shall be entitled to vote or be eligible to office."